UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE ROBERT H. JACKSON, Attorney General

IMMIGRATION AND NATURALIZATION SERVICE Lemuel B. Schoffeld, Special Assistant to the Attorney General

Our Constitution and Government

LESSONS ON THE CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED STATES FOR USE IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS BY CANDIDATES FOR TIZENSHIP

Prepared by

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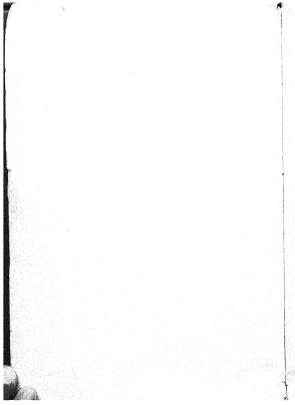
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Foreword

This textbook about our Constitution and Government has been written especially for the use of the foreign born who are preparing themselves for their naturalization examinations as applicants to be made citizens of the United States. Immigrants who are seeking to become citizens must know a great deal about the kind of Government under which we live, and about the Constitution of the United States which created that Government, so that they may become intelligent and worthy citizens. This book contains 30 lessons which tell how we got our present Government and what it does for us and what we should do for it. Anyone who studies these lessons earnestly and in a proper spirit will not only learn a great deal about our country and how it is governed but will be a better citizen because of such study.

Citizenship of the United States is a priceless treasure; it is a guarantee that the person who possesses it will have many valuable rights and privileges; at the same time it requires that the citizen shall perform the obligations and duties necessary to safeguard this country from any possi-

ble enemy, both from within and without.

Dr. J. W. Studebaker, Commissioner of Education, was invited to join in setting up a committee to consider the need for a citizenship textbook, and the kind of a book it should be. With his cooperation there was called together a committee consisting of Dr. L. R. Alderman, Director, Education and Training Section, Work Projects Administration; Dr. Mildred J. Wiese, then Specialist, Curriculum and Teacher Education, Work Projects Administration; Dr. G. L. Maxwell, then Assistant to Dr. Alderman; Dr. Leon C. Marshall, Chairman, Department of Economics, Graduate School, The American University; Miss Maude

E. Aiton, Administrative Principal, Americanization School, District of Columbia; Dr. William G. Carr, of the National Education 'Association; and Dr. Henry B. Hazard, Assistant to the Commissioner of Immigration and Naturalization.

The Immigration and Naturalization Service appreciates especially the fine spirit of helpfulness extended by this committee and its valuable service in making this textbook possible. It was through the committee that the services of a writer in the field of Government were obtained, those of Dr. Catheryn Seckler-Hudson, professor of Political Science and Public Administration in the Graduate School of The American University. It is believed that in this text Dr. Hudson has developed a new and most interesting approach to the subject of citizenship. The book which she has produced should be a very welcome educational help to candidates for naturalization; but, beyond that, it offers an inspiring lesson in American history and Government to any American citizen, old or young, who may read it. Any reader who finishes this book should carry away with him a sound understanding of democracy.

JAMES L. HOUGHTELING.
[Formerly Commissioner of Immigration and Naturalization]

Foreword to Second Reprinted Edition

This is a second reprint of the Federal Textbook on Citizenship, "Our Constitution and Government," which was prepared while the Immigration and Naturalization Service was a part of the Department of Labor. A few minor changes have been made in this revision to bring the text up to date.

LEMUEL B. SCHOFIELD,

Special Assistant to the Attorney General,
In Charge of the Immigration and Naturalization Service.
FERRUARY 1, 1941.



The Statue of Liberty

Note on the Use of Words

In writing about so large a subject as Government it is not always easy to use short and simple words that are readily understood by persons who have newly learned our language. For this reason, readers of this book will find that each long or hard word is printed in *italic type* the first time it is used. At the end of each chapter, all the words which have been printed in italic type in that chapter will be found explained according to the particular sense in which each word has been used. At the end of the book, all of these words and their explanations are printed again arranged in alphabetical order.

It is believed that an understanding of most of these words will prove useful to students of this book in all of their future reading about American life and Government.

CHAPTER 1

The Groups To Which We Belong

"America is another word for opportunity."

—Ralph Waldo Emerson.

OUR COUNTRY AS A LARGE GROUP OF PROPLE

You must often wonder about this large country in which you now live. From the days of the first settlers it has been the home of those who came from other lands to find a new and freer way of living. That is one reason why it has been called a new country. No one of the groups which came to America had a right to claim the whole country, for the early settlers came from Spain, England, France, Holland, Scotland, Ireland, and other lands.

The settlers who came to this land brought from their home countries their customs and usual ways of doing things. As they lived together in this country, they found that they were different in some ways but alike in others. Most of them were brave and had come here boldly determined to build up a new country. They were willing to give their lives, if necessary, to protect their homes from danger and to keep for their families the right of self-government.

Today the new country of the settlers has become a great republic. It is divided into 48 States, many of which are larger in themselves than some of the countries of Europe. Each State is separated into big divisions of land called counties, which in turn are separated into smaller divisions called townships; and there are many large and small cities, and villages. But they are all united under one flag and one National Government.

Today we are still a great mixture of peoples, who have brought into our country many different customs, habits, and religious beliefs. That is one thing which makes citizenship in the United States so interesting. But all of us in this country believe strongly that its many citizens can govern themselves, can get along well together, and can treat one another fairly. We all hope and plan that American citizenship will offer a fair chance of usefulness and happiness to every citizen.

YOUR NEIGHBORHOOD GROUPS

If we are to understand our new country, we must first of all understand life near us, in our own neighborhood. When we look about us we see men and women busy with some sort of work in factories or mills; others are farming; still others work in stores. Since the United States contains many kinds of people, we are not surprised to find in it many kinds of work through which these people can make a living. Look about in your own neighborhood and see all the kinds of work which people are doing. How many different ways of earning money do you find in your own community?

We may not know all of the people who live near us. In large cities we often do not know our next-door neighbors. We do know, however, that most neighborhoods have their own homes, schools, playgrounds, stores, churches, and religious meeting houses and other places where people meet together. All over this great country there are thousands and thousands of local communities somewhat like our own neighborhood. If we can think of all these other communities which are scattered throughout the State in which we live, we can begin to understand what our State is really like and what the problems and interests of its people are. Then we must consider that there are 48 such States, each with its thousands of communities. If we can imagine these many little communities within our Nation, some alike and some different, we can begin to understand what our American Nation is like. All these thousands of communities are parts of one Nation. It is to this Nation your own community belongs.

In your community you hold membership in a number of groups. You are a member of your family, your church, your study group, your work group, and your community group. Perhaps you belong also to some clubs, societies, or civic organizations. Then beyond your own neighborhood you are a member of your county group, your State group, your national group, and finally of the world community.

So we find around us all kinds of groups. In each one of these groups every member is probably also a member of at least two or three other groups, so that we can say that the groups themselves touch and join and merge into one another in many places. Sometimes groups work happily together, and sometimes they fight each other. For instance, criminal groups work against a happy and safe community life, and groups of honest citizens fight against the criminal groups.

HOW GROUPS MAY BE CLASSIFIED

If we think of the size of our groups, we find that some contain only 3 or 4 persons and others millions of persons. Our national group, the whole American people, consists of over 131 million persons. Someone has called our Nation "the largest club to which we all belong." If we think of the make-up of our groups, we find that they vary from those having almost no organization to those which have many officers, plans, and purposes. If we classifu groups by length of time they last, we shall find that some of them last only an hour or two while others go on for many years. A group of people may come together for only a few minutes to decide how to act together in some neighborhood problem. On the other hand, our national group is about 150 years old. Groups which are doing useful things for the community are called pro-social. For example, our honest work or business groups, our families and our school groups are pro-social. Groups which are doing things to hurt others are called antisocial. For example, criminal gangs are anti-social. (See Figure 3.)

DIFFERENT KINDS OF GROUPS

"Everywhere men cluster together in groups in order to get things done."

Classified according to:

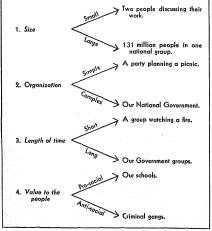


Figure 3 Our Different Kinds of Groups

Here are some of the groups of which all of us are likely to be members in our daily lives:

1. Some of these groups are connected with the ways in which their members earn money. Sometimes we refer to these as the business groups or work groups. Among them we find the groups of people who work in mines or factories or stores. We find groups of farmers who grow things from the earth. We find groups of bankers, of school teachers, of railroad workers, and of many other kinds of workers. Everyone who earns a living belongs to some business or work group.

2. Another set of groups are closely connected with the homes of America. These are our family groups. There are millions of families in this country. We depend on families to bring up the children of our Nation and train them to be good citizens. We expect families to guard the health of their own members. In this task the families are aided by health groups, such as hospital workers, doctors, and nurses. They are also aided by the play or exercise groups, such as hiking clubs and other kinds of athletic clubs.

These family groups are parts of larger groups. A number of families make a neighborhood, a number of neighborhood groups make a larger community, many communities make a State, and 48 States make up the United States.

3. A third set of our groups are the religious groups. They help us to learn the true values of life—what is right or wrong—and about unselfishness and the best way of living. This set of groups include the priests, ministers, pastors, and teachers of all the different kinds of churches, parishes, and synagogues, their workers, and the members of their congregations, organizations, and schools. Nearly all of us belong to one or more of these groups.

4. We call another set of groups the *education* groups. Their purpose is to teach people how to live better, with more wisdom and good *judgment*. Of course, many other groups help to do this, but the education groups have it as their chief *objective*. This set of groups include the

teachers and students of our schools, colleges, universities, Americanization schools, and other kinds of training classes. They also include reading groups, and groups to study music, painting, poetry, and other forms of art. You probably have a number of such groups in your own community.

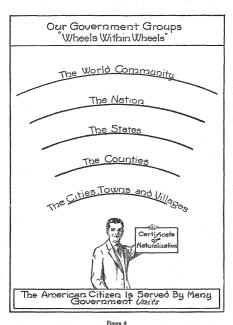
5. Another set of groups are occupied mainly with government. We call these our government groups. In these groups we can place every person who helps to manage or has any part in the government of any township, town, county, city, or State, or of the whole Nation. Most of these groups are parts of larger groups. Some one has said that in our group life we live in "wheels within wheels." Look at Figure 4 and you will see how our smaller government groups fit into larger ones. Many townships make up 1 county. Many counties make up 1 State; 48 States together make up the Nation known as the United States; and about 60 nations make up the world community.

You can probably think of many other groups of which you or your friends are members. If you can, please make a list of them, and of what they do, to be talked over in your class. Be sure to keep the list, as you may be able to add many things to it when you have finished the next two or three chapters.

THINGS TO DO

Questions to discuss in your study group:

- 1. Why did the early settlers come to this country to make their homes?
- 2. What did they bring from their home lands to add to the new country?
- 3. Look at the map facing the first page of your book. Find the State in which you live. In what part of the United States is it located? In what part of the State do you live?



Our Government Groups

- 4. What does the quotation at the beginning of this chapter mean?
- 5. Name all the groups you can remember which exist in your local community. To how many of them do you belong? Are you the leader of any of them?
- 6. Can you think of any groups which you would like to have added to your community? How do you think they would help the families of the community?
- 7. Can you think of any groups you would not want added to your community? Why not?
- 8. What kinds of work do the people in your community do? Try to make a complete list of the work groups in your community. You might begin by learning the kind of work done by each member in your study group.
- 9. Name the education groups in your community. Remember that your own class is one of them. What do education groups try to do?
- 10. Are there any music, painting, or other art groups in your community? What do these groups try to do?
- 11. Name at least three of the government groups of which a citizen may be a member. What do we mean by saying that in our government groups we live in "wheels within wheels"?
- 12. What do we mean by saying that America is made up of hundreds and thousands of groups? Are they all of the same size? Are they all good? Do they all work together?

Words* which the student should understand:

In this chapter we have used some new words. Each student should be sure that he understands the meaning of

^{*}Difficult words, which are printed in *italic type* in this chapter, are explained at the end of the chapter simply and in the sense in which they have been used in our discussion. A similar list will appear at the end of each of the chapters which follow.

each of them. Discuss them in your study group and use them in sentences. Be sure you include the following list:

Americanization—plans and ways which help foreign-born persons to become good American citizens.

anti-social-against the good of the people.

citizen-a full member of a city, State, or Nation.

citizenship-membership in a city, State, or Nation.

civio-interested in the good of a city or community.

classify-divide into classes.

community—a group of people living together who have some common interest; usually it is the good of their own neighborhood, city, or State.

congregations—groups of people who come together for religious services.

counties—parts into which a State is divided for government purposes.

oriminal groups—persons who join to do bad actions which are against the law.

oustoms-common uses.

discuss-talk over.

education-teaching and learning.

government—the persons who have charge of the public business; and the organization which they manage,

hospital-a building in which sick persons are cared for.

interests—special things which a person or group likes. italia type—printed letters which slope to the right.

judgment-choosing between right and wrong.

local-closely connected with one place.

manage-carry on.

member—one who is part of, or has a share in, a group.

membership—a position giving a chance or right to share in a group.

national—big enough for the whole nation.

neighborhood—place where people live close together; everything near you is in your neighborhood.

objective-purpose or aim.

opportunity-chance to better oneself.

organizations—groups working under clearly described officers for particular purposes.

problems—questions to be answered.

pro-social-for the good of the people.

religious beliefs-what we believe about God.

republic—a country governed by leaders who are selected by the people themselves and are expected to do what the people want. right of self-government—right of a group of people to manage their own affairs.

town—a group of houses, larger than a village, and the people who live in them; also a form of government.

townships—parts into which a county may be divided for government purposes,

units-single things, single parts of a group or organization.

universities-places of higher education.

vary-are different from one another.

villages—groups of houses, smaller than towns, and the people who live in them.

CHAPTER 2

How We Qualify for Group Membership

"In a democracy every human being is important to the whole group."

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In our first chapter we learned that we do not live alone but as members of groups. For thousands of years people have lived together in families, villages, towns, cities, states or countries, and nations. They have also come together in pleasure groups, work groups, and religious groups. In time some of these groups have died out and others have grown. Today the life of the people is made up of thousands of groups, and each of us belongs to a number of them. Let us figure out how we become members of the various groups to which we belong.

WHAT GROUP MEMBERSHIP MEANS

Most groups set up certain qualifications for their members. For example, before you can join the group of people who vote for the President of the United States you must be a citizen of this country. Before a child can join a school group he (or she) must have reached a certain age. To join most clubs one must be elected and pay dues. Every group must set up some definite qualifications for its new members, if it is to last long and grow. Very few of us would care to belong to a group that admitted every kind of person. You would not want all kinds of people admitted to your work group. If you were ill in a hospital, you would not want to find that the doctors or nurses had no proper qualifications for their work. You would not want the swimming pool in a park near your home to have a lifeguard who could not swim. You would not want the police force in your town to be made up of policemen who were lazy and careless. You would not want your neighborhood filled with persons who were criminals. And certainly you do not want bad people admitted to citizenship.

In setting up its qualifications for citizenship in the United States, our Government has tried to keep persons who would not make good citizens from becoming members. No doubt you are glad of this. If you are joining the biggest club of all, the United States, you will want to understand its membership. Let us see what qualifications one must have to join this national group.

WHO MAY BE MEMBERS OF OUR NATIONAL GROUP

Most persons who are citizens of the United States were born in this country. The Constitution of the United States provides in the Fourteenth Amendment that:

"All persons born . . . in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside."

Children born to American parents who are traveling or living outside this country are also American citizens, under certain conditions. And our National Congress has made laws to give citizenship to the people of Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands—parts of the United States which are separate from the main part and are not part of the 48 States.

The Constitution also provides that the Congress shall make rules by which persons who were born in foreign countries may become American citizens by naturalization. When a foreign-born person becomes naturalized, he actually takes our country as his own country and becomes a full member of our national group. In becoming naturalized, a person must give up his old country and become a loyal citizen of the United States. Millions of persons who were born in foreign lands have become members of this Nation just as though they were born here.

The laws made by our Congress provide that an applicant for naturalization in this country:

a. Must prove that he (or she) is a person of good moral

b. Must show that he whole-heartedly believes in the principles of the Constitution of the United States.

c. Must swear to give up all allegiance to any foreign

d. Must swear that he will support and defend the Constitution and the laws of the United States against all enemies, outside or inside the country.

These qualifications of the naturalization law are only another way of saying that all new members of our Nation (1) must have "the makings" of good citizens; (2) must believe in our form of government; (3) must give up all membership in any foreign country; and (4) must honor

and obey the principles of our Constitution.

Until about 60 years ago the United States kept its doors open to almost any person who wished to make his home here. From all over the world people came to this great country of about 3 million square miles. In 1882 the Congress began to limit the kinds of people who could come to our land. Today the entire immigration from all parts of the world except North, Central, and South America is limited to about 150,000 persons in any one year.

WHO MAY BECOME NATURALIZED CITIZENS OF THE UNITED STATES

A white person, or person born in Africa, or person of African descent, or a person who is a descendant of a race native to the Western Hemisphere, who is an alien, who has been admitted to live in the United States in the way provided by law and who has lived here without a break for 5 years, can be naturalized, if he or she has done all that the law requires. But it is the duty of the Government to refuse citizenship to persons who have committed crimes, to anarchists (persons who are against all organized government), and to other persons who do not seem likely to become good and loyal citizens.

HOW DOES A PERSON BECOME NATURALIZED?

There are nearly 2,000 Federal and State courts to which the laws passed by the Congress have given the power to naturalize aliens. At any time after lawfully entering the United States as an *immigrant* an alien who is at least 18 years of age and who has a real home here, may make a declaration of intention to become an American citizen. This declaration is made before the clerk of a court which has the power to handle naturalization cases.

This is the first step which an applicant takes. In this first step the applicant says that it is his intention to give up forever any membership in a foreign state and to become a citizen of the United States. In this way the applicant is beginning to meet the qualifications for membership

in our national group of citizens.

In not less than 2 years nor more than 7 years after he makes his declaration (provided that he has lived in this country continuously for 5 years without a break of a year or more), the applicant is ready for the next step. In the second step he goes to the clerk of the court and signs and swears to his petition for naturalization. He states in this petition (1) that he is not against organized government. (2) that he firmly believes in the principles of our Constitution, and (3) that he intends to give up his membership in the country from which he came to the United States. At the time that this petition is signed, two American citizens who are known to be truthful must swear before the clerk of the court (1) that they know the applicant to have lived continuously (without any long break) in the United States during the last 5 years, (2) that he is a person of good moral character, and (3) that he is attached to the principles of the Constitution of the United States. Before the petition is acted upon by the court, the applicant and his witnesses are asked questions by an examiner of the Immigration and Naturalization Service of the United States Department of Justice. The purpose of this examination is to make sure that the applicant is qualified, according to the law, to become a good citizen of the United States.

The third step is the appearance of the applicant in court. The law states that at least 30 days must pass after the petition is given to the court clerk before the petitioner (the one asking for citizenship) may appear before the judge for final action on his petition. He is sent a notice stating on what day he must appear in court, as naturalization dates are fixed by the judge. The petitioner himself must appear before the judge with his witnesses, unless such witnesses are told by the naturalization examiner that they do not have to come again. If the judge in court is satisfied that the petitioner is well fitted for naturalization, the petitioner takes the oath to give up all foreign allegiance and thereafter to give his allegiance to the United States. The judge then signs the order granting naturalization, and the new citizen is then given a certificate of naturalization. This is the official paper which shows that the applicant is now a citizen of his new nation, the country of his choice.

As a new citizen, the foreign-born person shares with persons born in the United States the rights of American citizenship. By his oath of allegiance to his new country he agrees to take up all the duties of a faithful citizen. The oath he takes is as follows:

OATH OF ALLEGIANCE

I hereby declare, on oath, that I absolutely and entirely renownce and abjure all allegiance and fidelity to any foreign prince, potentate, state, or sovereignty of whom or which I have heretofore been a subject or citizen; that I will support and defend the Constitution and laws of the United States of America against all enemies, foreign and domestic; that I will bear true faith and allegiance to the same; and that I take this obligation freely without any mental reservation or purpose of evasion: So help me God. In acknowledgment whereof I have hereunto affixed my signature.

THINGS TO DO

Questions to discuss in your study group:

1. Name two groups of which you are a member. Can everyone join these groups? If not, what are the

qualifications of membership? Do you approve of these qualifications?

- 2. Do you think there should be qualifications for persons who want to join a group of dentists? Surgeons? Bankers? Why?
- 3. Would our lives be in danger if there were no qualifications for membership in a nurses' group? Group of druggists? Group of lifeguards? Group of police?
- 4. Name two qualifications you would like the members of these groups to have:
 - 1. Traffic policemen.
 - 2. Drivers of milk wagons.
 - 3. Grocery store clerks.
- 5. To whom does the Constitution give the power to make a rule of naturalization? Why do you suppose this power was not given to each of the 48 States?
- 6. Only well qualified persons can become citizens of our country by naturalization. Why?
- 7. Why should our citizens by naturalization be attached to the principles of our Constitution?
- 8. Why do you wish to become a citizen of the United States?

Complete each of these:

| 1. | Fo | ur. | things to | which | every | applie | ant | for | natura | liza- |
|------|------------|-----|-----------|--------|-------|--------|---------------|------|---------------|-------|
| tion | $_{ m in}$ | the | United | States | must | swear | \mathbf{or} | give | ${\bf proof}$ | are: |

| 2 | | | | |
|---|--|--|------|--|
| 3 | | | | |
| 4 | | | | |

| in the process of naturalization are: |
|---|
| 1 |
| 2 |
| 3 |
| 3. If you are going to become a naturalized citizen, wha are three points to which your witnesses must swear is court? |
| 1 |
| 2 |
| 3 |
| 4. Study the oath of allegiance to the United State which a person takes when he is naturalized. Name a least three things which he promises when he takes thi oath. |
| 1 |
| 2 |
| 3 |
| Some more words which the student should understand: |
| abjure—declare under oath against a thing. acknowledgment—a true statement. admitted—permitted to enter or join. affix my signature—sign my name. aken—a person who is not a citizen of a country. allegiance—the duty of faithfulness which a person owes to hi country. |
| amendment—a change in, or an addition to, a constitution or law anarchists—persons who are against all organized government applicant—a person asking for something. |
| attached—devoted or loyal to. certificate—an official statement in writing or print telling som important fact. |

Congress, the—the national group of lawmakers in the United States, elected by the people,

Constitution of the United States—set of general rules and principles of government on which the whole National Government of the United States is built up.

declaration of intention—a "first paper," the sworn statement of

declare-state.

defend-protect from danger.

definite-clearly known.

democracy—a government of the people, by the people, for the people.

domestic—at home.

duty-that which a person ought to do.

elected—chosen by the votes of members of a group.

enemies-those working against something.

evasion—a tricky way of hiding the truth.

evamination—a way of testing somebody's fitness by asking

questions.

examiner—a person whose job is to test the fitness of another person by asking questions.

fidelity-faithfulness, lovalty.

final-the last.

good moral character—qualities which result in good conduct usually honesty and respect for the rights of others.

immigrant—a person who comes to a new country to make his home.

immigration—the entering into a country, for home-making purposes, of people from other countries.

jurisdiction—the lawful power of a government over its people and their property.

loyal-faithful.

mental reservation—some thought which you hide in your mind and do not tell anyone.

naturalization—the way in which foreign-born persons are given citizenship.

obligation-something we owe or must do.

official-issued by the Government.

person of African descent—a person whose parents or grandparents, etc., were of the African race.

petition-a written application.

polygamists—persons who have more than one wife or husband at the same time.

potentate—one having great power, as the ruler of a country.

president—the chosen chief officer of a group.

principles—general rules or true beliefs which can be used as a foundation for other rules or plans.

process—way of doing a thing.

qualify—prove that a person or thing is fit for a given purpose. renownee—declare against, or disown.

reside-live.

sovereignty—a kingdom or very powerful state.

support-uphold.

avitnesses—persons brought before a judge or government officer to tell what they have seen or heard or know about something.



CHAPTER 3

Ways in Which All Our Groups Are Somewhat Alike (1)

"There is nothing strange about our government groups. They all do their work in the same general way that our family, church, and other face-to-face groups do."

*

You have already learned that the American Nation is made up of thousands of groups of people. Some of these groups are very large. Others are as small as a single family. In very early days two or more persons often found out that by working together they were stronger than when each person acted alone. Perhaps it was in lifting or dragging a large log that two or more persons learned that the strength of a number working together was greater than that of the same number getting in one another's way. In fighting wild beasts and in building stone forts, men learned to work in groups.

In your own life you see groups coming together to help thresh grain, to talk about some difficult public question, to sign a petition, or to build a new house. All about you are groups of people working and acting together. Sometimes these groups are working together to earn a living in the best way they can. Sometimes they are coming together to hold services in a church, or to attend a town meeting and talk about government. There are also the groups who live together in neighborhoods, local communities, villages, towns, cities, States, and in our great Nation.

There are also many less carefully planned groups. If you go to a movie, you see many people coming together just long enough to see the show. If you go to the park, you see little groups having pienic suppers or playing games. And if you visit a hospital or *elimic* you find groups of nurses or doctors talking about sick people. Everywhere

about you there are groups. Added together, all of these groups make up our entire Nation. They are the means by which we get together to work, play, worship, and live. Sometimes some of these groups are unfriendly and fight each other. Sometimes they merely work against each other in trying to win an election. This happens when our political parties try to elect different candidates. Some of these groups go on and on for a long period of time, while others may gather for a few moments only.

Has anyone ever tried to help you understand certain simple things about all of these groups? There are many features which all of them have in common. If you can understand the ways in which our groups are alike, you will have gone a long way toward understanding our National. State. and local Governments.

BASIC WAYS IN WHICH ALL GROUPS ARE ALIKE

We are now ready to make a list of the basic factors which most groups must have in order to get things done.

- Groups almost always have some authority. This
 gives them their right to exist and do their work. Some
 member or members must use this authority to tell the
 others how to work together.
- Groups almost always have some objective (purpose) for which to work.
- 3. Groups almost always have some kind of organization through which to carry on the work. Groups operate through this organization to fulfill their purposes,
- Groups almost always have contacts (are in close touch) with other groups. They work closely with other groups in order to get things done.
- 5. In most groups all of these factors are governed by certain principles and *standards* agreed to by the members of the group.

You will want to consider these points one by one to see if they really do exist in all group life. Remember the

key words will be (1) authority. (2) objectives, (3) organization and operation, and (4) contacts. All of these must be thought of in terms of the group's (5) principles and standards.

ALL GROUPS HAVE SOME AUTHORITY

No matter what group you think of, you will find that some person or persons in it must have the right to say what shall be done. Someone must have the ''last word.'' In the home, for example, the children know that their parents have the final authority. In case of disagreement, the parents have the final say-so or last word. In our Nation the final authority belongs to the whole people.

In some groups the final authority is in the hands of a single person. This single person has the power to decide every question for the group. When a group has a single leader who has the power to make decisions for everybody without any argument, the authority is called autocratic. The authority in some foreign governments is autocratic. In such a system of government the people discuss the government and find fault with it much less often and more secretly than they do in countries where there is a less strict kind of authority. In a dictatorship the people must obey the final authority. They have no right to tell the government what it cannot do. The people merely follow. They do not rule or limit the government.

In some groups a very few persons hold the authority. In such a case we have an oligarchy, which means "the rule of the few." Perhaps you know of a group where a very few members seem to have control of the entire group.

In other groups the final authority belongs to all of the members of the group. We call such authority *democratic*, which means "the rule of the people."

You are trying, perhaps, to decide what you would call the kind of authority to be found in your church, in your social club, or in some foreign country about which you know. Of one thing you may be certain, whether it be across the ocean or in your own home, there must be enough authority given to one or more persons so that the group

DELEGATED AUTHORITY

Groups often delegate authority. In most groups the members keep the final authority in their own hands but delegate it (pass it on) to someone specially chosen to do certain things. Even in a discussion group like your own, someone must have the authority to act as leader. Someone must state the questions and divide up the work.

In your neighborhood schools certain authority is given or delegated to the principal and teachers. If this were not true, you would think a long time before you would send your children to that school. No one would be answerable for what happened to them or for what was taught to them. No one would call the pupils together or give them work to do. No one would give grades and promote pupils. There would be riot and confusion. In the schools to which you send your children you want the authority so delegated that you will know whom to see or call if anything goes wrong. You want someone to be in charge and to be responsible.

You may have a group in mind in which no one seems to know who is in charge of things. Perhaps there is delegated authority in the group, but it is difficult to find. Unless the group more clearly delegates its authority, it is likely to become weak. Someone has to be found to take responsibility, for responsibility and authority go hand in hand. If the president of a neighborhood improvement club has the responsibility for making his club a real power for good, he must be given authority to work out programs, to assign duties to members, and to call them to account if they fail to do their part. If the traffic policeman is responsible for the safety of persons at busy street crossings, he must be given the authority to order traffic to "stop" and "go." If you happen to hold an office in one of your groups, or if you are the chairman of a committee, you have been given (delegated) a certain amount of authority. If you hold no office at all, as a member of the group you 9945999 41 3

still have some responsibility. You should see that the group passes some authority on to its chosen officers.

Our Government units must have authority to do their work. Who has authority in these units? From whom do they get their power? The final authority belongs to the people. This is true whether you are thinking of the government of your Nation, State, county, city, town, or village. When the people vote to elect government officers they are only choosing persons to whom to delegate some of their final authority. Americans believe in having elections often, because such elections make it possible for the people to keep control over those to whom they have delegated authority.

If you will keep in mind, then, that in all of the government groups in this country (1) final authority belongs to the people, and that (2) the people delegate some (but not all) authority to their chosen representatives, you will have learned the first great principle upon which our system of government is built. This is a basic principle of our government and will be discussed fully in many places

in this book.

GROUPS MUST HAVE SOME OBJECTIVE OR PURPOSE FOR WHICH TO WORK

Groups do not just happen to exist. They are generally formed because two or more persons decide to do something together rather than singly. We must, therefore, always look for a group's purpose or its objective. For example, a group of farmers may work together for the purpose of threshing grain, harvesting crops, or building a barn. A group of children may be brought together by their parents with the objective of getting a teacher, forming a school, and having the children taught the necessary things to make them good and successful citizens. A group of serious people may get together with a priest or other religious leader with the objective of worshiping God or of studying religious teachings. A family group will have the objective of improving the comfort of the home and helping one another to make a success out of life.

What are the objectives of our government groups? All of them have the general purpose or objective of operating for the good of the greatest possible number of the people of the community. For example, the general objective of a city government is to make life safer and more orderly for the people living in the city. But, as a part of this general purpose, there are many other more simple objectives which give real meaning to the general one. What will the government do to make life safer and more orderly for the people living in the city? Certainly the people will want their community to be a healthful place in which to live. Therefore the government will have as part of its general objective the protection of the water supply and the taking away of waste and garbage. The people will want the city to be an attractive place in which to live. Therefore another part of the government's objective will be to maintain clean streets and well-kept parks. Certainly the people will want their city to be safe to live in. Therefore a part of the objective of the government will be to provide police protection for life and property. Many other objectives may be added to these. As we shall see later, sets of objectives like these are to be found in any one of the government units. All of them have the general objective of serving the people. The government constantly makes laws and rules to limit and regulate our activities for the good of ourselves and our neighbors. The government gives us all sorts of service which we cannot get for ourselves. But for the moment it is enough to know that (1) government in a democracy is intended to serve us, and not just to order us around, and that (2) its first objective is the greatest good of the greatest number of its people. We will discuss the objectives of our government units more fully later in our work.

THINGS TO DO

Questions to discuss in your study group:

1. Give as many reasons as you can to show why people, from very early times, have lived in groups.

WORK PROJECT

Consider some of the new stores, buildings, roads, bridges, schools, churches, and other improvements which have been built or made recently in your own or a nearby community. You may include those in nearby towns or cities if you are familiar with them. Who had the authority to build or make them, and where did they get their authority? What purpose or objective will each serve in the community? See how fully and completely you can make a bigger charl like the one below. If several persons in your study group work on this project, it will be interesting to compare and discuss your work after the charts are completed.

IMPROVEMENTS IN MY OWN OR A NEARBY COMMUNITY

| The Improvement | Delegated authority and final authority | Purpose or objective | | |
|-----------------|---|----------------------|--|--|
| 1 | | | | |
| | | | | |
| 2 | | | | |
| | | | | |
| 3 | | | | |
| | | | | |
| 4 | | | | |
| | | | | |
| 5 | | | | |
| | | | | |
| 6 | | | | |
| | | | | |
| 7 | | | | |
| | | | | |

Figure 5
Work Project: Improvements in My Community

- As you come and go about your work for just one day, see how many examples you can notice of people working or playing in groups. Discuss these in your class group.
- 3. In what way does every citizen in a democracy, have some authority?
- 4. In a democracy, why is it important that we do not give any one person too much authority?
- 5. Select any one of the groups to which you belong. Would you say that the authority within this group is (1) democratic? (2) autocratic? (3) oligarchic? Why?
- 6. Why does every group have some objective or purpose in life?
- 7. Are all group objectives for the good of the people? Can you give an example of a group which has a bad objective? Why should people learn something of a group's objective before joining it?
- 8. What do you consider the main objective of the group of traffic policemen in your city? What do you consider the main objective of the staff of doctors and nurses in your local clinic? Are these pro-social objectives? Why?
- 9. What is the objective of your class group? Is there any delegated authority in this group?

In this chapter we have used some interesting words. Every student should be sure that he understands the meaning of each of them. Discuss them in your study group and use them in sentences. Be sure you include the following:

activities—things which persons or groups of persons do, assign—set apart. authority—power which must be obeyed. autocratic—governed by the power or authority of one person. basic—at the foundation or base of, candidates—persons seeking office, chairmam—person who takes charge of a meeting. clinic—an organization of doctors, usually connected with a hospital or medical school, which gives free examination and treatment to sick or injured persons.

committee-group selected to do a special piece of work.

confusion—disorder.

contacts-places where things touch.

control—power of directing or guiding persons or things.

decisions—acts of deciding, or statements of what has been

decided.

delegate-pass on to others.

democratic-governed by the power or authority of the people.

dictatorship—autocratic authority given to a chosen leader, usually for a limited time.

disagreement-failure to agree.

discussion-talking things over.

exist—keep on living.

factors-things which work together to get results.

features-important and noticeable parts.

garbage—worthless food matter.

improvement—that which increases a thing in value or quality.

oligarchy—a government in which a few people have the final

word.

operate-do work.

orderly-peaceable, free from sudden change by violence.

political parties—organized groups which urge certain ways of running a government and try to get their own members elected to office.

programs—orderly arrangements of things hoped or planned to be done.

promote-raise from one grade to another.

protection-a guard or defense against danger or loss.

regulate—make rules for, or do a thing according to rules.

representatives—persons chosen to act for a group.

responsible-ready to answer for one's acts.

responsibility-readiness to answer for one's acts; or a call to duty which must be answered.

riot-uproar.

service-a useful thing to be done or given.

services—religious meetings for the purpose of worshiping God. standards—fixed rules or measures.

system-an orderly arrangement.

worship-pay honor to God.

CHAPTER 4

Ways in Which All Our Groups Are Somewhat Alike (2)

"Certain basic processes run through all of our groups."

*

We have considered two of the ways in which all of our groups are like. If they are to get things done, they must have (1) authority to direct their work, and they must have (2) objectives (purposes) for which to work. Let us see in what other ways our groups are similar.

*

GROUPS MUST HAVE SOME FORM OF ORGANIZATION AND OPERATE THROUGH IT TO CARRY OUT THEIR OBJECTIVES

In every group (except the kind which stays together only for a short time) there will be some sort of organization. It is through organization that a group operates (works) for its objectives. No matter how good the objective of a group is, it usually cannot be carried out without organizing, that is, dividing up its work among group members.

In different groups, the form of organization may differ greatly. Even a group which has a very simple objective, like going to a picnic, does not carry out its objective without some organization. A few members get together to decide where the group will go. Someone is responsible for the food, and someone looks after the transportation for getting there and back. Even a general store in a village often has a group of persons organized to operate it. Someone owns the store or perhaps someone rents it. There is a head man in charge, and there are one or more clerks. Each does a different part of the work in the organization, so that the service to customers will be prompt and intelligent. In a school organization there is usually a school board and there are teachers and pupils. Perhaps

there is a *superintendent*. Each person has a part of the work to do in operating the organization so that community will have a good school.

Each of our government groups has an organization to carry out its objectives. Just as our school or our neighborhood bank or factory has some form of organization, so have all of our government groups. Each has its elected or appointed officers, certain committees and certain branches. All of these make up the organization.

Our Nation and all of the 48 States have written constitutions which outline a workable form of government organization and tell how it is to be operated. The cities have their charters, which do the same things for them that the constitutions do for the States.

In this country we like to put into writing the plan of our government organization. That is one reason why we have city charters, State constitutions, and a National Constitution. In some foreign countries the form of the government organization is not written down at all. Sometimes it isn't even very well understood, because it changes so often.

Just as objectives by themselves are worth very little, so a panization by itself is worth very little. The organization should at all times be working toward some objective. Our study group has a simple objective, to teach its members to be good citizens. It has an organization made up of the teacher, those who attend its meetings, and perhaps class committees. But this is not enough. Those in the organization (teacher, class members, and committees) must work together to reach the objective.

There are many differences in the organizations of our government groups. Our various government groups are not all organized alike. Even our cities do not all have exactly the same form of organization. Nor are all the towns, counties, or States organized exactly alike.

The organization of our town governments may differ according to (1) the size of the town, (2) its location, or (3) its special problems or objectives. A small town far out in the country will not need the same kind of organization for its government as a large city needs. There will be fewer things for the small-town government to do. fewer services to give to the people. But the people of a small town lying near a large city will expect many of the same services from government as the people of the city get. Therefore, its organization will be different from that of a country town. If a city is located on an important harbor, one of its objectives may be to help its people handle foreign trade, and it may be organized to regulate shipping, to operate wharves and docks for loading and unloading vessels, which an inland city does not have to do. Towns in which main highways meet will need more traffic policemen than towns in parrow valleys where there are few cross streets. So we can only sum up by reminding you that (1) all of our government groups must have some form of organization, (2) the organization will not be exactly alike in many of them and (3) the organization, whatever it is, must be operated to carry out the objectives of the government group.

EACH GROUP MUST WORK WITH OTHER GROUPS

We have seen that there are thousands of groups in this country and that each of us is a member of a number of groups at the same time. While these groups may have different leaders, different purposes, and different organizations, the very fact that they have many members in common makes it necessary that they keep up a friendly relationship with one another. We have found that people form groups because they can do so many things better by doing them together. In the same way different groups are helped to reach their objectives by working in a friendly way with other groups. Neighborhood life is better if family groups do not quarrel but work together for the good of the neighborhood. Religious groups do not prosper if they waste their strength in opposing other religious groups. Your business group will be much stronger if it cooperates with other business groups for

the good of the community. Farm groups never succeed when they spend their time in finding fault with town or city groups, because, after all, they grow many things which city people need and they use many things which must be bought from city people.

Our government groups must work with other groups. They need the support of the people whom they serve, and the people, in turn, need the services and protection of the government. Government groups must pay their bills with money given to them by the people in the form of taxes. The people must have confidence in the government, or they will not be willing to go on delegating authority and power to it. A county must work out a peaceful relationship with other counties, with nearby cities, and with the State. The State, in turn, must live as a good neighbor with other States. It must live in friendly relationship with the cities which are within its borders. It must cooperate with the National Government. In turn, if the Nation does not carry on its dealings with other nations in a peaceful manner, we may be at war most of the time. So, just as private persons must learn to work together in a friendly and helpful manner, government groups must keep up friendly contacts with one another and with the other groups to which their members belong.

THE AUTHORITY IN EACH USEFUL GROUP, AND ITS OBJECTIVES, ORGANIZATION, AND CONTACTS WITH OTHER GROUPS, MUST BE GOVERNED BY DEFINITE PRINCIPLES AND STANDARDS AGREED UPON BY ITS MEMBERS

This may be a little hard to understand at first. We have discussed the authority in each group and understand about that. Also, about the group's objectives, and its organization and its contacts. Now we find that underneath all of these, like a foundation under a house, are certain agreements among the members of pro-social groups as to the true and fair ways of doing things—agreements as to how the members believe they can work out the greatest good for the greatest number.

In the past our parents and grandparents and those who

went before them—our ancestors—have worked out convenient ways of making life better for themselves and their communities. Whenever these ways of doing necessary things have worked out well and have built up in the group some real confidence that they are good honest ways, the group members have usually come to an agreement to keep on using these ways, until the ways have become customs. Some customs last for hundreds of years, while others become less useful as times change or as people invent something better. The customs which last a long time become standards (fixed rules or measures) and we can use them as measuring sticks for testing proposed new ways. Some of them become firmly fixed beliefs, or principles. (See Figure 6.)

On the foundation of these standards and principles are built up all the different factors of group living—its authority, objectives, organization, and the kind of contacts it makes. So the standards and principles of a group are important things for both its members and outsiders to understand. For example, in our government groups, the most important standard of all is the Constitution of the United States (about which you are going to learn a great deal through the rest of this book). It is the strong foundation on which all of our government groups are built.

We say that everything which a government group does must be constitutional. Please remember this word, for it will have a large part in your preparation for citizenship. It means that we Americans regulate our group activities according to the rules set down in a written constitution. The authority which we give our government groups, their objectives, their organization, and their contacts must be in agreement with the Constitution of the United States.

Our more everyday groups also have standards and principles which govern their actions. Perhaps you have a son who is a Boy Scout, or a daughter who belongs to the Girl Scouts. The Boy Scouts have the Scout Law, the Scout Oath, and the Scout Motto, and the Girl Scouts have their seven principles. Even in our homes we are gov-

Certain basic factors make the working connection within and between all groups, just as the palm of the hand supports all of the fingers and the thumb. Basic Factors in Group Living Code three took and Operation 5-All of these must est on firm Principles and Standards

Figure 6
Basic Factors in Group Living

erned by principles. Almost every child understands the principle of "obedience to parents." He (or she) also understands that there are principles of property rights which must be respected in the home. Every boy knows that he must not take his mother's glass vase from the table and break it, nor take money from his father's purse without permission. We expect a grocer or butcher to act according to the principle of fairness in giving us vegetables that are fresh or in weighing our meat honestly. Many of the foundation principles of life are so simple and sensible that we do not think much about them as we go along. But the best things in our lives are built upon them, and they are very important.

THINGS TO DO

Questions to discuss in your study group:

- 1. Name four groups in your local community. Do they all have some kind of an organization? Why were these groups organized?
- 2. Are all of the groups with which you are familiar organized exactly alike? Why or why not?
- 3. Why do our city and town governments have different kinds of organizations?
- 4. Why does our National Government need a somewhat different kind of organization from that of a town?
- 5. Why is it important for the members of a family to live happily together? Do you think it is just as important for the various groups in your community to cooperate and work together? Why?
- 6. Does your family group have any contact with other groups in your community? Can you name several of these? Why is it important to keep peaceful contacts between these groups?
- 7. Do you think individuals as well as groups should have certain principles and standards to govern their lives?

Name several very simple but important principles you admire in your friends.

- 8. Name several important principles we expect to find being followed by groups of government officials. Of teachers. Of church leaders.
- 9. What important principles and standards come to your mind when you think of the new citizenship for which so many readers of this book are working?

Suggested field trips:

Arrange for your class group, or committees selected by it, to visit some of the interesting spots in your local community. Two suggestions are given below:

1. Visit the city hall of your city.

(a) What are the objectives (purposes) of the government groups working there?

(b) Where do they get their authority?

- (c) What contacts do they have with other groups in the community?
- 2. Visit a session of a county court.

(a) What objective does it serve?

(b) What contact does it have with the people in the community?

(c) How is it organized to do its work?

- (d) Is the organization operated well enough to serve the needs of the community?
- (e) What authority does the court have to do its work?

Some more words which the student should understand:

ancestors—parents, grandparents, and their parents and grandparents all the way back.

appointed—chosen for a job, but not by vote.

arrange-put things in order.

borders-edges or boundary lines.

oharters—sets of general rules authorized by the government which are the foundations on which certain kinds of organizations are built up. confidence—trust, belief in someone's honesty or ability to make good.

constitutional—in agreement with the principles of the Con-

constitutions—sets of general rules which are the foundation upon which organizations are built.

convenient—handy, well suited for ready use.

cooperates—works in a friendly way with other people.

customers—regular or frequent buyers.

foreign trade—business of buying and selling between people of two countries.

harbor—a body of water forming a safe place where vessels may stay.

obedience-doing what one is told to do.

property rights—rights which a person has in things which he owns.

prosper-get along well.

relationship—a well-understood connection between two or more persons or things.

session-meeting.

similar—somewhat alike.

superintendent—a person who watches and directs the activities of others in an organization.

taxes—money which people must pay to the government to help pay its expenses.

transportation-way of getting from one place to another.

CHAPTER 5

The Advantages and Obligations of Group Membership

"No person is worthy to share the advantages of group membership unless he is willing to assume the obligations of such membership."

*

In our last two chapters we learned a great deal about the make-up of groups. We learned something about their purposes and objectives, their leadership and authority, their organization, the way they touch and affect other groups, and the foundations on which their group life is built up. Now we want to know what each member must put into his group life and what he can hope to get out of it.

ADVANTAGES OF GROUP MEMBERSHIP

Every person becomes a member of a family group when he or she is born, although sometimes the family group is broken up by death or is scattered before the child grows up. In almost every other kind of group, the members belong because they want to, and usually because they expect some advantage from their membership. As we have explained, there are a great many things in every person's life which have to be done and which can be done better by a number of people working together in a group than by single persons struggling alone.

It is possible to have a teacher for a single child, and some rich people like to have their children taught in that way. But a boy or a girl in a class at school usually gets as good teaching as he or she needs from the school teachers and has the added advantage of learning how to get along and make friends with other boys and girls—which in itself is a very useful thing to learn.

In a work group the members have a better chance to earn money if they are all helping to make good articles quickly and well, or to sell things at good prices, or to arrange for fair wages and healthful working conditions, than if each one worked at home and had to do the whole of a difficult job by himself.

Members of a group interested in religion can do many good services for one another and for other people, can work together to have a worthy place in which to meet and worship God, and can gain strength and wisdom from one another's advice and experience. A religious person could not have as full a religious life alone.

Governments are usually formed by groups of people for the purpose of making and enforcing laws which will protect the rights of the group members and will give them opportunities (better chances) to improve their lives and make sure of their comfort and happiness. When immigrants come to a new country, they generally find that some kind of government is already being carried on there and they therefore must accept what they find, whether it completely satisfies them or not-although they naturally will not willingly immigrate into a country whose government they hate. When children are born they cannot choose their birthplace so as to begin living under a kindly, helpful form of government. All children are fortunate if they are born in a democracy, and all immigrants are fortunate if they are allowed admission into a democracy; for in a democracy the final authority belongs to the people. and the government groups are organized to serve the people.

Later in this book you will find a chapter (chapter 10) about the rights and opportunities of group membership under the American form of government.

OBLIGATIONS OF A GROUP MEMBER

Each person owes some sort of duty to every useful group of which he is a member. He cannot expect to get the advantages of group membership unless he is willing

to accept certain obligations. For you cannot get many good things out of life without giving something in return.

Any person of good sense can carry out these obligations. He (or she) must be willing to work in a friendly way with other members of the group so that the whole group can do its work smoothly. For instance, if the group life of a home is to go along smoothly, each member of the family must respect the rights and property of all the other members and must do his or her part in the work of the home. In a study group each member must be polite and helpful. must do his or her part in the school work, and be careful not to damage school supplies or property. In a religious group each member should take part in the services and activities of the congregation and should try to live the kind of life which will make the church group strong and respected. In one way or another we have similar duties as members of every organized group to which we belong. It is only by doing our duty in each of these groups that we can get the most good out of our membership. And the groups themselves can be no stronger than their members make them. (See Figure 7.)

We consider that a neighbor is a good member of the community if he is friendly and honest, keeps a neath home, and helps to make the neighborhood healthy and safe. In the same way every citizen may become an important member of larger groups, such as the city, State, and Nation. But if any one member does not do his part, even in a large group, he makes the rest of the members do more work, which is not fair to them. A person who does not work well with his neighbors in nearby groups usually does not make a very valuable member of larger groups.

SOME OBLIGATIONS OF MEMBERS OF OUR NATIONAL GROUP

Every member of our National Government group (which is made up of about 127 million citizens and about 5 million noncitizens) has important obligations to the Nation, from which he (or she) gets so many advantages and services. Some of these obligations do not arise often to

Obligations To Our Groups

No group is stronger than its members make it: Each one of the groups below suffers if its members grow careless or grows stronger if its members carry out fine obligations of group membership. To each of these groups every member owes certain obligations which can be met by any reasonable person.

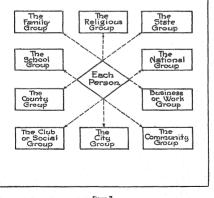


Figure 7
Obligations to Our Groups

test the good will of the group membership, but when they do present themselves they bring inconvenience or danger and call for real self-sacrifice. Other obligations arise every day and are repeated tests (although not difficult ones) of good citizenship. Here are three obligations, for example, which may require considerable time and discomfort, or even danger:

In time of war, any able-bodied man may be called upon to fight for his country. Every naturalized citizen knows that he must be willing to bear arms and fight in defense of the Constitution and the Nation. Unless he agrees to that, the judge will not let him take the oath of allegiance. For he must consider his country's safety more important then his own welfare.

Even in times of peace, any man may be ordered by the *sheriff* of the county in which he lives to help in arresting a criminal or in enforcing the public peace and order.

Any man who is a citizen (and in most States women, too) may be called upon to serve on a jury in a law court and must then, if he is chosen by the judge, stop his regular work and attend court as long as he is needed.

Some citizens may go through life without being asked to do any of these things, but there are various other duties which they may be called on to do, such as serving on local school boards or other committees, joining the National Guard (milltia), or giving other voluntary services which it is hard for a good citizen to refuse. And also there are the taxes—which both citizens and noncitizens may be called on to pay, in order to meet the expenses of government.

PAYING TAXES

Few of us really like to pay taxes to the government, and some of us think we get off without doing so, but we must remember that almost everybody who buys things from a merchant or pays rent to a landlord is helping that person to pay taxes on his business or property, because the merchant or landlord has to charge each person a little extra for that purpose. Of course almost every

part of the government must have money to pay expenses. Some citizens on the other hand look on their taxes as their membership dues to the government organization which gives them so many advantages and services. In paying taxes they figure they are paying for police protection, fire protection, good streets and roads, schools, and hundreds of other government services. Turn to Figure 8. It shows many of the good things which we receive for our tax money.

VOTING

Another duty of every citizen, which is also a great right and privilege, is the obligation to vote for officers of the government. Through using his right to vote, the citizen plays his part as one of the real rulers of this country. We can have good government only if we elect able and honest officials. In electing officials the vote of each citizen counts for as much as that of any other citizen. Each citizen is "equal before the law." If the newly naturalized citizen understands the obligations which he takes upon himself with his oath of allegiance, he will not fail to vote as wisely as he can. He will gather all the information he can get about the candidates in every election and will think it over carefully. If the citizens of this country do not do their duty by voting, they will put our democracy in danger. For it is only by using their right to vote that the people can rule this country. All citizens who are interested in their own welfare, the welfare of their families, and the welfare of the Nation should remember this

SERVING THE COMMUNITY IN OTHER WAYS

One of the usual ways for a citizen of the United States to show good citizenship is by taking an active part in the affairs of the community in which he or she lives. In his own town, village, or neighborhood a citizen can get firsthand information about local problems of government. If there is a new bridge or school to be built, a new public hospital to be planned, or a new park to be located, the

WHY WE MUST HAVE TAXES IN A DEMOCRACY

Some of the Things We Get for the Taxes We Pay

PROTECTION

- Policemen to protect us.
- 2. Laws to protect our families and homes.
- 3. Courts to protect our rights.
- 4. Army and Navy to protect our country.
- 5. Fire departments to prevent and put out fires.

HEA! TH

- 6. Pure water systems.
- 7. Sewer systems.
- 8. Inspected milk and meat.
- 9. Sanitoriums and hospitals.

EDUCATION

- 10. A widespread system of schools.
- 11. Free public libraries.

ROADS AND CONSERVATION

- 12. Highways and streets.
- 13. Protected forests and wildlife.

PROTECTION OF SAVINGS

- 14. Bank inspection and insurance of savings in banks.
- 15. Regulation of corporations.

RELIEF AND AID

- 16. Public work and relief during hard times.
- 17. Old-age pensions.
- 18. Help for dependent, diseased, and crippled children.
- 19. Relief from droughts and floods.
- 20. Employment insurance for those who are injured or lose their jobs.

Figure 8

citizen can learn for himself about the real need behind these plans. He can then talk them over with other taxpayers and with public officials in his neighborhood. Good public officials should always be glad to discuss such matters with citizens.

GOOD CITIZENSHIP REGINS IN THE COMMUNITY CROUP

We see that good citizenship begins in the community group, where the citizen knows the community's needs and takes part in the everyday life of the community. The national group cannot be democratic (which means that it cannot give all the people their fair share in the government) if the community groups are not democratic.

Every citizen can also help the community very much by his everyday behavior, such as careful driving, helping to keep parks and neighborhoods clean, and having a neat and clean home. He can do his daily work earnestly and respect his neighbors' rights. Even boys and girls are aiding the police in large cities by helping younger children to cross busy streets safely on their way to school. Parents, in their homes, have one of the greatest obligations of good citizenship in training their children to become helpful citizens. No wonder we say that the best citizen is the one who has learned to be a good member of his home, his school, his club, his neighborhood, and his community.

In conclusion, we can say that our citizenship is a privilege given to some of us at birth, but gained by others through naturalization. It puts upon each citizen the obligation to work as faithfully as he can for the good of the whole national group.

THINGS TO DO

Questions to discuss in your study group:

1. In our country does the vote of a rich citizen count for more than the vote of a poor man? Why or why not?

OBLIGATIONS AS GROUP MEMBERS

Discuss in your class the obligation which a person owes to every group of which he is a member. After the discussion, complete the following chart as best you can:

| 1 | Obligations which a person owes to his FAMILY: |
|---|---|
| | 1. |
| | 2. |
| | Obligations which a person owes to the SCHOOL group: |
| | 1, |
| i | 2, |
| | Obligations which a person owes to his CHURCH: |
| | 1. |
| | 2, |
| | Obligations which a person owes to his WORK: |
| | 1 |
| | 2. |
| | Obligations which a person owes to his NEIGHBORHOOD or COMMUNITY: |
| | 1 |
| | 2 |
| | Obligations which a person owes to his COUNTY or CITY: |
| | 1. |
| | 2. |
| | Obligations which a person owes to his COUNTRY: |
| | 1, |
| | 2 |

Figure 9

Work Project: Obligations as Group Members

- 2. Do the everyday activities of a person tell us whether he is a good citizen? Why?
- 3. Name some of the things in your community in which you think every citizen should be interested.
- 4. Select one of the groups to which you belong which has at least 10 members. How was it formed? What was its purpose? How did you become a member? What is your own part in the group?

Suggested field trips:

Are there any new improvements being made in your community? Any more parks? Public buildings? Roads? Bridges? If so, elect a committee from your group to visit each of them. Ask the committee to report to your group and tell how each new project will help the community.

Some more words which the student should understand:

admission-permission to enter into or join.

advantages-things which are helpful.

articles-particular things.

corporations—groups of people who join in business, each group with legal permission to act as one person.

dependent-relying upon others for support.

enforcing—using authority, or even force, to put a law or rule into effect.

expenses-cost of things.

experience—that which has been learned by having tried a thing.

good will—willingness to live or work together well,

improve-increase in value or quality.

inconvenience—discomfort; something which gives a person trouble.

inspected-looked at carefully.

inspection—careful study or inquiry made by actually looking at the thing examined.

insurance-protection against loss.

jury—a group of citizens who are chosen to listen to trials in a court and to decide which side is right. landlord—an owner who rents his land or buildings to someone else.

libraries—buildings or rooms where books are kept to be read.
local problems—neighborhood questions that need answering.
merchant—a person whose business is to buy and sell things.
militiu—an organization of soldiers who in peacetime have other

jobs, and drill and are trained only on a part-time basis.

officers—persons given authority by a group to hold definite jobs
or "offices."

officials-officers.

privilege—a special advantage which we should prize.

regulation—rule to limit or direct action (usually government action).

self-sacrifice—a giving up by a person of things he needs, usually in order to help other persons.

sheriff—a law-enforcing officer of a county.

voluntary-according to one's free will.

vote—express one's choice between men or plans by indicating "yes" or "no."

welfare-good living conditions.



CHAPTER 6

How the American Colonists Defended Their Freedom and Started a New Nation

 $\begin{tabular}{ll} ``Independence now and Independence forever." \\ ---Daniel Webster. \\ \end{tabular}$

In chapters 3 and 4 we learned that certain basic factors will be found in almost all the groups which last. We must soon go forward to study these basic factors as they are found in the many different kinds of government groups in this country. Before we can do this, however, we shall need to know something of how our government groups were started. We already know that our form of government is built upon our National Constitution. In this chapter let us go back to the days of the earliest settlers and learn how they kept their freedom and established an independent nation.

THE EARLY COLONIAL GROUPS

Our Nation is now a Republic made up of 48 States, the District of Columbia, and outlying Territories, It has grown from 13 States to its present size. Before the people of the 13 States organized themselves into a new Nation they had lived in separate groups of communities, called Colonies, which were ruled by the King of England.

Most of the early American Colonies had been settled by groups of persons who had some special objective. The Virginia Colony, for example, was settled by an English "company"—a group of Englishmen who tried to make their fortunes by taking the lumber, tobacco, indigo, and other agricultural products of the new country back to Europe and selling them for a profit. Naturally agriculture was the chief business of the settlers.

The "Pilgrims" from England and Holland came to New England to face cold winters and unfriendly Indians, because they valued the right to worship God in ways which were forbidden at home.

The Quakers formed another group of early settlers. Led by William Penn, they came from England to what is now Pennsylvania and were interested in founding new communities in which they might not be persecuted for their religious beliefs.

Settlers from Holland built the town of New Amsterdam on the south point of Manhattan Island as a trading center for the great Hudson River Valley, which had been explored by their famous sailor, Hendrik Hudson. The British afterward took the town and renamed it New York.

Only a few years after the English landed in Massachusetts and the Dutch in what is now New York State, the Swedes, Finns, and other northern people began coming to Delaware and New Jersey as settlers. Later some of the Spaniards from Florida and the French from Canada moved to the new country to join the English colonists. Many Germans came to Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia. The Scotch and the Irish became settlers in all of the 13 Colonies and helped, with bravery and cheerfulness, to explore and build up the new country. But the greater number of colonists, from New Hampshire to Georgia, were the sons and daughters of British parents and ancestors.

Turn to Figure 10 and you will learn when and where some of these early groups settled in our country. But you must remember that only the British came in large enough numbers to form separate government groups which lasted. These groups were friendly enough and neighborly enough so that settlers of other races found themselves welcomed and were glad to live under the governments set up by the British.

The only groups in this country with whom the settlers were not able to cooperate or to make friendly contacts were the American Indians. These Indians did not know how to read or write like white men and did not understand

SOME OF OUR FIRST SETTLERS

People from many foreign lands came and settled in this new world. They sought liberty and a better living, and the happiness they hoped these would bring them. Here are some of the early arrivals:

| 1607 | The ENGLISH settled at Jamestown, in what is now Virginia. |
|-----------|---|
| 1620 | The ENGLISH (Pilgrims) settled in what is now Massachusetts. |
| 1623-1625 | The DUTCH settled on Manhattan Island, where New York City has since been built. |
| 1638 | The SWEDES settled in what is now the State of Delaware. |
| 1681 | The ENGLISH (Quakers) settled in what is now Penn- sylvania. |
| 1683 | The GERMANS settled at Germantown and other places in Pennsylvania. |
| 1714 | The SCOTCH-IRISH settled in large numbers in the western edge of all the colonies from Pennsylvania to Georgia. |
| 1718 | The FRENCH settled at New Orleans, at the mouth of the Mississippi River. |

Figure 10
Some of Our First Settlers

the colonists' custom of building permanent homes in groups and communities and of working hard to improve the land, to increase trade and manufacture, and to provide good schooling and orderly peaceful living conditions for their families. The Indian tribes had an authority and organization which seemed to the colonists to be constantly changing. Their members moved from place to place, hunting and fishing; they did not like to work regularly at farming or home industries, and they fought very often among themselves. A few Indians joined the settlers' groups, but most of them stayed apart, were suspicious of the white men, and were a constant danger to the peace and order of the Colonies.

It was the hope of the colonists that the authority used over them by the King and the Parliament at London would give them a real form of self-government, with authority delegated to their own assemblies to make their laws and with a general objective of protecting their lives, their families, their property, and their freedom. For hundreds of years past England had been one of the few countries in the world in which the people had had a large share in the authority and responsibility of government.

THE KIND OF GOVERNMENT WHICH THE BRITISH GAVE TO THE COLONIES

The government of the early Colonies was in the hands of the British King and his advisers. For over 100 years the colonists were fairly well satisfied with it. The mother country did not interfere too much with the personal freedom of the colonists. The British King sent out governors; but the colonists were allowed to elect members of lawmaking assemblies which had the right to decide about taxes, public improvements, and other important matters. The royal governors sometimes interfered with the rights of the assemblies and of the colonists, but in general the people of the Colonies were very loyal to the King and British Government and thought themselves well treated.

THE EPENCH AND INDIAN WAD

Between 1755 and 1765 a change came. The British became engaged in a war with France, and the French in Canada made an alliance with the Indian tribes to attack the English settlements. The colonists fought bravely and spent their money freely to defend their country, and the British sent generals and soldiers to help them. Together they won the war and succeeded in taking Canada away from the French and turning it over to the British King. Afterward the British Government, which had spent large sums of money in fighting the French in Europe and in India, as well as in North America, tried to collect part of the cost of the war from the colonists, who had already suffered heavy losses in fighting the French and Indians. To do this, the government in 1765 put a heavy stamp tax on all kinds of business and trade in the colonies. Part of the money raised in this way was to be spent in America for improvements and better protection against the Indians, but part was to be taken back to England.

Many of the colonists claimed that they could have won the war without the British soldiers; but, more than anything else, they complained that they were being taxed without being given the old English right of voting for or against the plan of taxation. They had no representatives in the British Parliament, and their own elected assemblies were not consulted by the British Government across the

ocean

PERINGS CREW DITTER

As feelings grew more bitter, the government of King George III began to interfere in other ways with the lives and businesses of the Americans. England had always tried to keep other countries from getting a share of American trade, and the colonists had made no objection as long as they could count on British protection from the French, the Spanish, and the Indians. But now the British Government put new burdens of taxation and regulation on American trade, in ways which hurt the colonists badly. And the colonists began to feel that all their freedom, and

especially the rights of self-government which they had always claimed, were being taken away from them.

Delegates from the Colonies met as a "Continental Congress" at Philadelphia in 1774 to discuss the troubles which they were having with England. They hoped to get fairer treatment by sending a petition to the King, but many of them were willing to fight to get from England what they considered to be their rights.

HOW THE COLONIES WON THEIR INDEPENDENCE

The war which had ended in 1763 had left the British the most powerful nation in the world. In planning to fight against this great power for their rights, the colonists had to remember that they were divided into 13 separate groups, loosely joined by a new congress of delegates having no real authority which would be binding on the people back home in each colony. The colonies had no well-trained soldiers and no real armies. In the rough-and-tumble fighting with the French and Indians they had been very successful, but after all it must be remembered that they had been fighting against the Indians in the new country for a hundred years or more and knew that kind of fighting much better than the British soldiers and their officers did. However, the colonial fighting men were not trained to fight in settled country, on regular battlefields, and against well-drilled groups of soldiers who had learned in famous battles all over the world to work together and gain the great advantage of cooperation. The colonists were mostly farmers, trappers, and traders, and even in their cities they had few factories which could make weapons and other things needed for fighting a war.

The only money they had was British money and, when the war began, their trade with England and with all other countries was stopped by the British war vessels, so that they could not get any more money from outside the Colonies. The weak central government which they had set up had no right to demand tax money but could only ask each Colony to give as much as it was willing to.

GEORGE WASHINGTON

In June 1775 the Continental Congress did the best thing it could possibly have done to carry on the war successfully. It chose George Washington, of Virginia, the bravest, most able, most patient, and unselfish man in all the Colonies, to be the commander of the Colonial Army. He had been a fighter since his boyhood and a very useful citizen in many other ways. He soon proved that, even if he did not have enough soldiers to beat the famous British "red coats," he could lose battles without losing the war, for he never let his army be captured—as British armies were captured by the Americans at Saratoga in 1777 and at Yorktown in 1781, in the two most decisive battles of this war. His soldiers loved him and all the colonists trusted him.

Washington's fame and the colonists' fight for freedom soon began to draw helpers from Europe—such men as Lafayette and Rochambeau from France, Kosciuszko and Pulaski from Poland, and Steuben from Germany—and these men helped to train and lead the colonial soldiers in the kind of fighting which was needed to beat the British. Love of freedom and admiration for George Washington often kept the Colonial Army from breaking up and going home when there was no money to pay the soldiers and hardly any food, clothes, or weapons to keep them alive and fighting.

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

The struggle against England drew the colonists closer together. At first they hoped that their willingness to fight might persuade the British Government to respect their rights and to treat them better. But as the war went on, they began to favor complete separation from Great Britain. Soon a committee of the Continental Congress, made up of Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, Roger Sherman, and Philip Livingston, was appointed to draw up a Declaration of Independence.

On July 4, 1776, the Declaration of Independence, which had been written mostly by Thomas Jefferson, was adopted by the Congress representing the 13 Colonies. It was almost a month later before the Declaration was signed by 56 men. These signers and their families were regarded as traitors by the British Government. It is no wonder that Benjamin Franklin said, as the document was being signed, "We must indeed all hang together, or most assuredly we shall all hang separately."

Among the signers were farmers, lawyers, merchants, ministers, planters, doctors, and men of other occupations. If you study Figure 11 you will read the names and occupations of the 56 men who signed the Declaration. You will also learn what State each represented. The 13 English Colonies which became 13 States were (1) New Hampshire, (2) Massachusetts, (3) Rhode Island, (4) Connecticut, (5) New York, (6) New Jersey, (7) Pennsylvania, (8) Delaware, (9) Maryland, (10) Virginia, (11) North Carolina, (12) South Carolina, and (13) Georgia. Perhaps your own State is among them.

The Declaration of Independence proclaimed that the Colonies were from that day forward free and independent States and no longer under any allegiance or obligation to the British King, and that they had full power to make war or peace, or to take any action which other independent States had a right to take

States had a right to take.

THE FINAL VICTORY OF THE AMERICANS

The colonists were successful in their War of Independence. When the news of the Declaration of Independence reached Europe, the French began to think about fighting the British again. The courage of Washington and his Army, the American victory at Saratoga, and the failure of the British armies to defeat the scattered and weak colonists led France to make an alliance with "the United States of America" in February 1778, and soon after to send a fleet of war vessels to help the Americans. Spain and Holland also joined the war against England although



THE SIGNERS OF THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

(Adopted July 4, 1776)

| Name | State | Work | Name | State | Work |
|-----------------------|-------|-----------|--------------------------|-------|------------|
| John Adams | Mass | lowver. | Thomas Lynch, Jr | S.C | planter |
| Samuel Adams | Mass | brewer | Thomas McKean | Del | lawyer. |
| Josiah Bartlett | NH | physician | Arthur Middleton | | |
| Carter Braxton | | | Lewis Monts | NY | former. |
| Carro Brancon | | owner. | Robert Morris | | |
| Charles Carroll | Md | | John Morion | | |
| Samuel Chase | Md | lawyer | Thomas Nelson, Jr | | |
| Abraham Clark | NI | lawyer | William Paca | Md | lawyor |
| George Clymer | Pa | merchant | Robert T. Paine | Mass | lawyer. |
| William Ellery | R I | lowwer | John Penn | N C | lawyen |
| William Floyd | NY | land | George Read | Del | lawyer. |
| | | owner. | Caesar Rodney | Del | merchant |
| Benjamin Franklin | Pa | | George Ross | Pa | Imerchant. |
| Elbridge Gerry | Mass | merchant | Benjamin Rush | Pa | physician |
| Button Gwinnett | | | Edward Rutledge | SC | lawyor. |
| Lyman Hall | | | Roger Sherman | Conn | choo- |
| John Hancock | Mass | merchant. | 110301 01101111011111111 | | maker. |
| Beniamin Harrison. | Va | planter | James Smith | Per | |
| John Hart | | | Richard Stockton | NI | lawyer |
| Joseph Hewes | NC | merchant | Thomas Stone | Md | lawyor |
| Thos. Heyward, Jr | S.C | lawyer | George Taylor | | |
| William Hooper | N C | lawrer | Course raylonization | | turer. |
| Stephen Hopkins | R.I | merchant | Matthew Thornton | NH | physician |
| Francis Hopkinson | N.I. | lawyer. | George Walton | Ga | lowyer |
| Samuel Huntington. | | | William Whipple | NH | merchant |
| Thomas Jefferson | Va | lawyer. | William Williams | Conn | merchant. |
| Richard Henry Lee. | Va | planter | James Wilson | Pa | lawyor |
| Francis L. Lee | Va | planter | John Witherspoon | NI | minister |
| Francis Lewis | N.Y | merchant. | Oliver Wolcott | Conn | lawyer |
| Philip Livingston | | | George Wythe | Va | lawyer |
| · ·····p ······ngaron | | | | | |

Figure 11

The Signers of the Declaration of Independence

they did not send help to the colonists. The British began to have troubles in many places. Before long they had to give up Philadelphia, which they had captured in 1777, and were only able to hold onto New York City and parts of the Southern States. Finally their only fighting army in America was surrounded at Yorktown in Virginia and forced to surrender.

The patience and able leadership of George Washington, the courage of his little army and its officers, and the help given by our French allies had won the war. When the treaty of peace was signed in 1783, the Colonies were recognized by the great nations of Europe as independent States and an independent Nation, which they had been claiming to be since 1776.

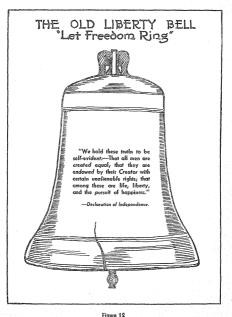
INDEPENDENCE DAY

Ever since the signing of the Declaration of Independence we have *celebrated* the 4th of July as Independence Day. We celebrate it as our Nation's birthday. The old cracked Liberty Bell, which was used to "proclaim Liberty throughout all the land unto all the *inhabitants* thereof," may be seen today in the old State House in Philadelphia. (See Figure 12.)

THINGS TO DO

Put the correct word in each blank:

- 1. The _____ settled what is now known as Pennsylvania.
- 2. The lawmaking body of the British Government is called the ______
- 3. The 13 Colonies fought a long war and won from Great Britain their ______.
- 4. The document declaring the 13 Colonies to be free and independent States is known as the
 - 5. We celebrate our Nation's birthday on the fourth of



The Old Liberty Bell

Great Britain were.

| CALCOND PPRATORELL TOWN OF |
|--|
| 1 7 |
| 2 8 |
| 3 9 |
| 4 10 |
| 5 11 |
| 6 12 |
| 13 |
| Some more new words which the student should understand: |
| admiration—great liking for. adopted—accepted. agricultural—connected with farming. alliance—agreement of groups to cooperate. assemblies—the meetings of a group; a word often used in connection with lawmaking groups. binding—serving to connect persons or things closely together. British—people of England, Scotland, and Wales. burdens—things heavy or hard to carry. celebrated—made an important or a happy occasion of. Colonies—newly settled communities or countries which belong to an older national group. colonies—persons living in a colony. |
| Continental Congress—a group of delegates from all the colonies which met first in 1774 to make plans to protect the rights |
| of the colonists. |
| oreated—made new. |
| Creator—God, the Supreme One. |

Continental Congress declared the 13 North American Colonies delegates-persons to whom other persons give authority to represent them, usually for a meeting.

decisive-deciding, having final influence on the result. Declaration of Independence—the public statement by which the

to be free from Great Britain.

demand-ask or call for with authority.

document—a written or printed paper that often is used as a guide for action.

endowed-given valuable gifts or rights.

established-set up or created.

fleet—a number of ships under one command.

forbidden-ordered by someone in authority not to be done.

founding-starting or setting up.

independence-freedom from being ruled by someone else.

independent—not needing the support, or subject to the control, of someone else.

inhabitants-people who live in a place.

interfere—act in a way to hamper the actions or freedom of another person.

occupations-ways of earning a living.

Parliament, the-name for the British lawmaking group.

persecuted-treated with repeated acts of cruelty.

persuade—win over by argument.

surrender-give up.

Pilgrims—persons who left England and Holland to find religious freedom.

proclaimed—made a public statement about an important thing, profit—gain, sale of an article for more than you paid for it. pursuit—search for.

recognized—accepted, self-evident—so clear that nobody can misunderstand.

territories—separate tracts of land belonging to a nation.

traitors-persons who go against their allegiance.

treaty—an important agreement between two or more nations.

weapons-things to fight with, as guns.

CHAPTER 7

How a New Constitution Was Planned and Adopted

"We the people of the United States, . . . establish this Constitution for the United States of America." —First words of the Federal Constitution.

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After the colonists won their independence from Great Britain they faced the problem of choosing a form of government for themselves. What kind of government would about 4 million people in a new country choose? To what kind of a government would they give power to make laws which they themselves must obee?

To answer these questions, the wise leaders of the 13 States wrote the Constitution which is today the *supreme* law of the United States. Let us read about the planning of the Constitution.

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THE NEED FOR A STRONG GOVERNMENT

The War of Independence freed the American Colonies from Great Britain. They became independent States. But they still had the problem of setting up a government on which they could all agree. Here were 13 States, free but in an unfriendly world. They did not know how closely they must get together for safety, nor how independent of each other they could afford to be. They had not paid all the expenses of the war. They had no money with which to pay their debts. No general plan had been worked out to guide them in their relationship with foreign countries. They no longer had a mother country to protect them from other nations. They had no real central government. What were they to do? What good or bad things could they see ahead of them?

Some of the people in the States wanted to set up a strong central government. Others were fearful that in so doing they would lose some of the freedom for which they had fought.

THE ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION

For 8 years (1781–89) the people of the 13 States tried to work out their problems through a plan of government known as Articles of Confederation. In this plan a central government was set up, but it had so little power that it could not do much to help the States or their people. It had no chief executive to enforce its laws. It had no power to collect taxes, and so could not work out a general tax system for all 13 States. It could ask the States for money but could not force them to give it. The people of each State felt that their State could withdraw from the Union whenever they wanted to. The Confederation could not really protect their property. It could not settle disputes among the States. They could not even feel sure that it could defend them from their enemies.

A DANGEROUS PERIOD

The 8 years from 1781 to 1789 are known as the Critical Period of our country's history (a period when difficult decisions were being reached). During those years it was often thought that the people of each of the 13 States were too much interested in their own State to join in forming a strong union. Many thoughtful people began to fear that the States would stand idly by and let their chance of becoming a nation slip away from them. It was hard to get able persons to take leading positions in such a weak confederation. Slowly the States began to drift apart and to distrust one another. And so, little by little, some of the leading men of the States began to argue that there must be a strong central government, with enough authority to force the States to obey its laws. It was difficult to get such a plan started. But finally the Congress, which was the only central group for the representatives of the 13 States, decided to suggest to the States that they arrange for a convention to change and strengthen the Articles of Confederation.

THE CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION OF 1787

The Convention began its meetings in Independence Hall in Philadelphia on May 25, 1787. This was the same hall in which the Declaration of Independence had been signed almost 11 years before.

The State governments had named more than 70 delegates to attend the Convention, but only 55 came. The State of Rhode Island did not send anyone. Only 39 delegates finally signed the Constitution. The signers and the other delegates who worked faithfully to draw up the new plan of government are now known as the "Fathers of the Constitution."

What kind of men represented the States in this Convention? If each community in your State were asked to send a representative to your State capital to help improve your State government, you and your neighbors would certainly try to select someone who knew the needs of the community and was able and vigorous. Just so, in 1787. the States sent to the Constitutional Convention at Philadelphia some of their most experienced leaders. The best known among them were George Washington, who patiently acted as president through the long sessions, and by his wisdom and influence did his country a fine service in guiding and holding together his fellow delegates; Benjamin Franklin, the 81-year-old Pennsylvanian who had for so many years represented his country in England and France: James Madison, of Virginia, who did more than any other member of the group in actually writing the new Constitution, ably helped by Gouverneur Morris and James Wilson, of Pennsylvania; and Alexander Hamilton, of New York, the fiery young advocate of a strong central government.

The Convention was made up of men who came from different groups in their communities. Each was loyal to his own State. Some came from small and some from large States. Their opinions differed widely on the question of how the small and the large States should be represented in the new government. Some of the deputies

were rich and others were poor. Some were property owners with slaves as a part of their property. This led them into differences of opinion with the representatives of States which did not approve of slavery. There were sharp differences, too, between the representatives of the farming States and of the States with large cities and many merchants. At times it seemed hopeless to try to get any general agreement.

DIFFERENT PLANS FOR A NEW COVERNMENT

Every delegate had to think of many people beside himself. Each had to remember the main interests of the people of his own State-the business interests, the ways of living, the customs of government-as well as many smaller group interests within his State. No delegate could feel comfortable about going back to his people at home unless he had gotten for them as many good things as anybody got out of the new plan of government. Of course, that meant that every State group of delegates had to be ready to give up some of the things which their State wanted in order to get other things which it needed as much. The thing which all of the States really needed most was a smoothly working system of national government, and it was because some of the delegates were wise enough to see this and were persuasive enough to make the rest of the members see it too, that the convention finally succeeded in planning and adopting a Constitution which all the world has admired and which has been a model followed in various ways by other governments ever since. The leaders of the convention were wise enough to compromise.

THE COMPROMISE

Some of the smaller States had at first wanted to be completely independent; that is why little Rhode Island had not sent any delegates. But as the members of the Convention talked matters over for 4 months, they all began to see certain things more clearly. Some of these were:

- 1. That no single State could be sure that it was safe from foreign invasion.
- That no single State was strong enough to protect its foreign trade.
- 3. That no single State could successfully handle the Indian problem.
- That no single State could deepen and improve, for shipping and water control, rivers which ran through several States.
- 5. That they all needed good connecting roads for travel, trade, and postal service.
- That they all had much the same needs and the same ideas about laws, freedom, religion, and self-government.
- That they all had suffered needlessly from the weakness of the Articles of Confederation.

The small States were still worried for fear that other States, especially the large States, would get the better of them; and some delegates were so distrustful that they walked out of the Convention rather than agree to give up any part of their State's independence.

Instead of breaking up in a fight, as some expected, the Convention finally agreed that each small State should have the same number of Senators in the United States Senate as the big States did—two apiece—and that representation in the House of Representatives should be divided among the States according to the number of their inhabitants; but as the big States might be expected to pay more tax money to the central government than the small States, all laws about raising money would have to be agreed upon by the House of Representatives, where the large States would have more votes, before the Senate could vote on them.

There were also several other compromises by which different groups of States were given certain special rights in exchange for giving up other rights. But in the end they all agreed to a plan for a central government which would be strong enough to make them act together and form a single nation.

EXAMPLES FROM THE PAST WHICH GUIDED THE CONVENTION GROUP

If you were asked to write out a constitution for a club or other group organization in which you were interested, how would you begin? Would you look about you for some model or example from the past to guide you? That is just what the Fathers of our National Constitution did at Philadelphia. They looked about for something good from the past to copy. But they did not copy any single model. They borrowed certain ideas from a number of different sources with which they were or had been in contact.

1. They borrowed from their experiences with the British government. You may remember that the English colonists brought to America many ideas of self-government in use in their home country. The British had a constitution (although not a written one) which was supposed to protect their right of self-government. There was a great deal more personal liberty in Great Britain than in most European countries, and the people there had the right to elect certain members of the Parliament. They could rely on the British law courts for fairer trials than in other countries. Some of these ideas became standards and principles which guided the writers of our Constitution.

2. The Colonial Charters helped to guide the Convention work. The citizens of the 13 Colonies had lived for many years under written colonial charters. Some of these charters contained many ideas for government organization. The colonists who lived under these charters usually liked the ideas set forth in them, and it is natural that they used them as models from which to work out a National Constitution.

3. The Declaration of Independence helped the makers of our Constitution. The delegates at Philadelphia found great help in the Declaration of Independence, which had been adopted 11 years before. It had stated some of the objectives of a democratic government. It had declared that such a government must get its power from the people. It had protested against many bad things which the British

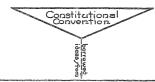
Government had done. Many of the principles and standards of our Government which are as true today as they ever were can be found in the Declaration of Independence. For example, it declares that all men are created equal and have a right to live, to be free, and to work for happiness; it proclaims the duty of the Government to preserve these rights of the people.

4. There were 13 State constitutions in 1789. When the Colonies renounced their allegiance to Great Britain they also declared themselves to be independent States. Each of the colonial groups then wrote its own State constitution. In doing so it borrowed ideas from the colonial charters. At Philadelphia the Fathers of our National Constitution studied the plans of government which had been set up by these State constitutions and found some of them very helpful in guiding their work.

5. The Articles of Confederation helped the Convention. The Articles of Confederation under which the 13 States had lived during the Critical Period were of some use. The government organization under these Articles had been very unsatisfactory, but it gave the delegates at Philadelphia many suggestions, which kept them from repeating the mistakes of the past in establishing the new plan of government.

6. The political ideas of leaders were of help to the delegates at Philadelphia. Not everything which guided the Fathers of the Constitution could be found in written form. The great thinkers among the delegates themselves had many ideas about government. They, after all, were the ones who had fought the mother country in order that they might establish their own form of government. The ideas of great thinkers of other nations helped also. For example, it was a French writer, Montesquieu, whose writings suggested to Gouverneur Morris and others the idea of dividing the government's power among three branches: the legislative branch, the executive branch, and the judiciary.

Examples Which Guided The Tathers" Of Our Constitution



- 1-State Constitutions. 4-Articles of
- 2-Colonial Charters. Confederation.
 3-British System. 5-Declaration of
- of Government. Independence.

 6-ldeas of leaders.

To we as



Figure 13
Examples Which Guided The "Fathers" of Our Constitution

RESULTS OF THE CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION

After a long summer of work, the Convention asked Gouverneur Morris to write the final draft of the Constitution. This he did, and on September 17, 1787, the document was ready for the members of the Convention to sign. Only 39 of the 55 members signed it. Some were absent and others refused to sign. Then there remained only one final step to take which was to send copies of the Constitution to each of the 13 States for ratification. (See Figure 14.)

SUMMARY

We can see clearly that the making of our Constitution by the delegates from 12 States was a very difficult task. We know that it called for great wisdom to write a new plan of government which would have a chance of being accepted by the States. We know that, just as we would borrow ideas from many places, if we were to write a plan for any new government group, so the Convention group borrowed a bit here and a bit there to weave into a new pattern of government for our Nation. The adoption of the Constitution created a new Republic of 13 States, all joined in one Nation to form the United States of America. The Constitution is to this day the highest law of our land.

THINGS TO DO

Can you select the word or phrase that will make each of the following statements read correctly?

- 1. The Articles of Confederation were-
 - (1) our present Constitution.
 - (2) our plan for State governments.
 - (3) the early plan of government for the 13 free States.
- 2. One of the questions before the delegates to the Constitutional Convention was—
 - how to weaken the central government.
 - (2) how to provide for fair representation for

both large and small States in the new government.

- (3) how to spend the money of the States.
- The final draft of the National Constitution was signed by—
 - (1) all members of the Convention.
 - (2) no members of the Convention.
 - (3) 39 members of the Convention.
 - 4. After the War of Independence, the 13 States were-
 - (1) wealthy.
 - (2) safe and secure.
 - (3) deeply in debt.
 - 5. After the War of Independence, the 13 States needed-
 - (1) a weaker central government.
 - (2) a stronger central government,
 - (3) no central government.
 - 6. The purpose of the Constitutional Convention was-
 - to revise the existing plan of government.
 - to talk over the war.
 to elect a president.
- 7. Our National Constitution was written and signed in the city of—
 - (1) New York.
 - (2) Boston.
 - (3) Philadelphia.
- The only State not represented in the National Convention at Philadelphia was—
 - Virginia.
 - (2) Rhode Island.
 - (3) New York.

Questions to discuss in your study group:

1. Why was it so difficult for the delegates at Philadelphia to decide on a plan of government which the 13 States would accept?

- 2. Who were some of the leaders at the Philadelphia Convention?
- 3. What were some of the reasons which caused the 13 States to want to join and form a union?
- 4. From what sources did the Fathers of the Constitution borrow ideas to use in writing the Constitution for the new Nation?

Some more words which the student should understand:

advocate-a person who urges some special course of action.

Articles of Confederation—written agreements for cooperation between the 13 independent State government groups after the Declaration of Independence.

compromise—make a bargain in which each person or group gives up something in order to make agreement possible.

Confederation—the group of 13 original States under the Articles of Confederation.

convention—a meeting of delegates.

Critical Period—the time when difficult decisions had to be made.
deputies—representatives.

disputes—quarrels, distrust—feel no trust or confidence in.

distrustful—having no trust or confidence in what is going on.

draft—wording, choice of words to express ideas already agreed on.

executive—an officer or group of officers whose duty is to put
somethine into effect, as a law.

executive—having authority and power to put things into effect.

experienced—having remembered and profited from trial and

practice.

House of Representatives—a group of elected representatives chosen by the people to make laws, particularly the "lower house" of our National Congress.

ideas-thoughts or opinions.

influence—power of a person to sway the opinions or actions of

invasion-an unfriendly entering or attack.

judiciary-a system of courts of justice.

legislative-having power or authority to make laws.

model-something to be copied.

opinions—what a person thinks, without knowing it to be true. preserve—keep safe or in good condition.

protested—"kicked" against or objected to (usually against something which injured the objector).

ratification-adoption, acceptance, favorable vote.

representation—choice of a few persons to act for a larger group. revise—improve by changing.

revise—improve by changing. secure—make a thing safe.

Senate—a group of lawmakers, particularly the "upper house" of our National Congress.

sources—places from which anything comes or is gotten.
supreme—highest, most important, having most authority.

Supreme—ingress, most important, naving most authority.

Union—things joined to make a single whole, like the States in our Nation.

vigorous-full of life.

wealthy-rich.

withdraw-to get away, or to take away.



CHAPTER 8

Establishing the Constitution Which Gave a Central Government to Our Nation

"Let our object be our country, our whole country, and nothing but our country. And, by the blessing of God, may that country itself become a vast and splendid monument, not of oppression and terror, but of wisdom, of peace, and of liberty, upon which the world may gaze with admiration forever!"

-Daniel Webster.

7

In the last chapter we learned how the 13 States passed through a dangerous time under weak Articles of Confederation. We learned that some of the leaders of the States saw the need for a stronger central government. We learned how 55 leaders were sent to Philadelphia to strengthen the Articles of Confederation, and how their work resulted in the Constitution of the United States. In this chapter we shall learn how the Constitution was adopted by the people of the States and what kind of a central government it set up for the new Nation,

A

HOW THE NEW CONSTITUTION WAS RATIFIED (ACCEPTED AND MADE OFFICIAL)

When the delegates to the Constitutional Convention finished their work by voting in favor of the new Constitution, they had only taken the first step in making a new Nation. They themselves had no power to force the 13 States to accept their work. One State—Rhode Island—had not been represented at all in the Convention, and another—New York, one of the largest and most powerful—had only agreed very unwillingly to let one man, Alexander Hamilton, attend; many New York leaders were against having a central government. So the delegates provided in the Seventh Article of the New Constitution that the adop-

tion (or ratification) by "nine States, shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same."

ACCEPTANCE OF THE NEW CONSTITUTION

When the various State governments received copies of the Constitution, they took official action, calling upon the people of their States to send delegates to State conventions to study the new Constitution and to vote "Yes" or "No" on it.

Delaware acted first. Its State Convention met in December 1787, only a few weeks after the Constitutional Convention finished its work in Philadelphia, and ratified without a single vote of "No." Pennsylvania ratified 5 days later by a vote of 46 to 23. Then New Jersey and Georgia each approved the new Constitution without a dissenting vote; and before the month of January 1788 was far advanced, the Connecticut Convention voted 128 to 40 in favor of ratification. Massachusetts had a hitter contest in its Convention, but those who favored the new Constitution won by a vote of 187 to 168. The ratifying resolution thanked God for the "opportunity deliberately and peacefully without fraud or surprise of entering into an explicit and solemn compact with each other by assenting to and ratifying the new Constitution"; but suggested that certain fears of the good people of Massachusetts could be removed by amendments which they hoped would soon be adopted,

In the spring and early summer of 1788, Maryland, South Carolina, and New Hampshire ratified without serious disagreement. This completed the favorable vote of nine States, so the Constitution could be put into effect without further delay. But the great States of Virginia, North Carolina, and New York and the small State of Rhode Island were missing and left great gaps in the territory of the new Nation.

The people of Virginia, the biggest State with the largest population, were sharply divided about the new Constitution. Only three of the six Virginia delegates had signed

it—George Washington, James Madison, and John Blair. The great name of Washington was a strong influence in its favor, but the fiery orator, Patrick Henry, argued long and brilliantly against it. Finally a favorable vote of 89 to 79 was taken. In ratifying, the Virginia convention declared that the powers granted under the Constitution were only such as were willingly given by the people of the United States, and that liberty of conscience and of the press could not be taken away from the people by any authority in the United States.

Then came New York, and here a great struggle took place. New York was a big State, standing like a wedge in the center of the seacoast, with the best harbor of all, and could completely cut off New England from the other States. If New York voted against the Constitution and stayed outside the Union, it would separate the new Nation into two unconnected parts. So it seemed important that the advantages of the Constitution should be explained more fully to New York. With this in mind, Alexander Hamilton, James Madison, and John Jay wrote and circulated 85 articles in which they set out the reasons why the Constitution should be adopted. Their strong arguments were published later in a book called "The Federalist"—a book which is still very valuable as a study of our government. The articles seem to have convinced just enough members of the New York State Convention, for on July 26, 1788, New York ratified the Constitution by the close vote of 30 to 27

At last, success was won. North Carolina, the twelfth State to ratify, did not accept the Constitution until 7 months after the first President had been chosen. Rhode Island, the one State which had not sent any delegate to the Philadelphia Convention, refused to have anything to do with the new government until May 1790. By that time she had discovered that she was being treated like a foreign nation and that she was too weak to stand out alone. So she finally consented to ratify and thus to become one of the United States. (See Figure 14.)



EIGHTH ARTICLE: "The ratification of the conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same."

☆

| | State | Date of Ratification | Signatures |
|-----|----------------|----------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. | Delaware | December 7, 1787 | George Read and others. |
| 2. | Pennsylvania | December 12, 1787 | Benjamin Franklin and others. |
| 3. | New Jersey | December 18, 1787 | Wm, Livingston and others. |
| 4. | Georgia | January 2, 1788 | Wm. Few and others. |
| 5. | Connecticut | January 9, 1788 | Wm. Johnson and others. |
| 6. | Massachusetts | February 6, 1788 | Rufus King and others. |
| 7. | Maryland | April 28, 1788 | James McHenry and others. |
| 8. | South Carolina | May 23, 1788 | John Rutledge and others. |
| 9. | New Hampshire | June 21, 1788 | John Langdon and others. |
| 10. | Virginia | June 26, 1788 | George Washington and others, |
| 11. | New York | July 26, 1788 | Alexander Hamilton and others, |
| | | | William Blount and others. |
| 13. | Rhode Island | May 29, 1790 | |

☆

Within seven months from the date of ratification by the first State, nine States had voted to approve the Constitution. However, the new government could not have gotten along very well without the approval of the two large States, Virginia and New York. After New York had approved the Constitution, the city of New York was chosen as the temporary seat of the National Government. It was there that George Washington was inaugurated as President on April 30, 1789.

Even after the Constitution had been ratified, many persons were still disturbed about this new and strange union to which they belonged. Others accepted it eagerly and believed that it would in time make the United States one of the greatest nations on earth.

THE FIRST PRESIDENT

After the new Constitution had been ratified by the States, the next thing to do was to choose the men who were to represent the people in the new government. First a Congress was elected. The people elected their Representatives and the State assemblies elected their Senators, as provided in the Constitution. Then the people of the States selected well-known citizens to serve as electors and to choose a President. These electors chose George Washington as President and John Adams as Vice President. New York became the temporary Capital of the Nation, and it was there that George Washington was sworn in as President on April 30, 1789.

No wonder there was rejoicing on the part of the leaders who had worked so hard to form a new plan of government. Certainly they had done something to be proud of in after years, for they had set up a Constitution which was to become one of the most famous in the world.

THE BASIC FACTORS OF GROUP LIFE AS FOUND IN THE NEW CONSTITUTION

As the Constitution brought together into a single government group 13 State governments and about 4 million people, it will be interesting to see whether this great charter provides all the basic factors which we have found in other important groups. The Fathers of the Constitution were not thinking of any set of basic factors while they were at work in Philadelphia, but were simply trying to make a government plan which would be better than they had had before, either under the Confederation or under Great Britain. Yet, in order to get what they wanted, we

shall see that they happened upon all the basic factors of

group life.

- 1. The Constitution provides for an authority strong enough and broad enough for a great nation. The final authority belongs to the people themselves. The different branches of the Government receive their authority as it is delegated (passed on) to them by the people, who can increase or decrease the power of the Government if they want to. The Constitution gives to the central government of the Nation the authority to make laws on almost all subjects which are of common interest to all the people, and the power to put those laws into effect and make both the State governments and the people respect and obey them. National laws are the "last word" on national questions, but State laws are the "last word" on State questions, because the people have delegated part of their authority to the National Government and part to the State governments
- 2. The Constitution makes clear the objectives of our national government group. The opening sentence of the Constitution (which is called its Preamble) explains the purpose of the States in adopting this important agreement. It says that the people wanted to form a "more perfect union" in order to (1) establish justice, (2) insure domestic tranquillity, (3) provide for the common defense, (4) promote the general welfare, and (5) secure the blessings of liberty for themselves and their families forever. In chapter 19 of this book you will find a full explanation of each of these objectives. In Figure 15 you can read the Preamble of the Constitution in the very words in which James Madison, Gouverneur Morris, and the other "Fathers" wrote it.
- 3. The Constitution provides for the organization of the government group. It sets up a Federal System of government. The word "Federal" is very like the word "Confederation" and means "by agreement of equals." The National Government is organized by the agreement of equally powerful States, which agree that a central au-

The Objectives of Our National Government as found in the Preamble of the Constitution



Preamble

We the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestric tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity do ordain and establish, this Constitution for the United States of America:



Figure 15

thority can do many things better than they themselves can, working separately. For this reason it is often called a dual (or double) system of government.

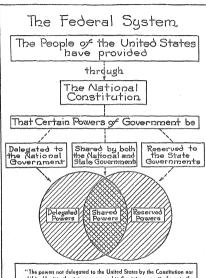
By far the greater part of the Constitution is taken up with regulations about the organization of the National Government. It gives a long list of the subjects on which the legislative, or lawmaking, branch can make laws. It tells how officials shall be chosen and how laws shall be passed. It describes the duties of the President and the powers of the Supreme Court and other Federal courts. While it does not contain rules for the organization of the State governments-because 13 of them were already doing their work before the Constitution was adopted-it reserves to the States many powers which are not delegated to the National Government and in that way clearly shows what duties the State governments will be expected to do.

4. The Constitution provides for contacts with other groups. For a Federal system it is necessary that the Constitution should set up well-understood relationships between the central government and the State governments. We have just spoken of the powers delegated to the National Government and those reserved to the States. Besides these, there are certain powers which are shared by both National and State governments and are known as concurrent powers. Please turn to Figure 16, as it will help you to understand these somewhat complicated relationships.

The Constitution also provides for contacts between our Nation and foreign countries, by giving the President power to appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and to receive ambassadors and other public ministers from foreign countries.

It also explains the relationship which should exist between the several branches of the National Government.

5. The Constitution was built upon certain important principles and standards. We shall study very carefully the basic principles of the Constitution (and its Amendments) in chapter 10 and in the last two chapters of this



"The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution nor prohibited by it to the states are reserved to the states respectively, or to the people." The 10th Amendment of the Constitution of the United States.

Figure 16 The Federal System

book. Many of these basic principles seem to have been in the minds of the Fathers of the Constitution as they made their plans at Philadelphia, but were not put into the Constitution when they adopted it, because the delegates were trying to set up a central government which would satisfy the people, rather than to declare general principles. This caused a great deal of questioning in some States, as we have seen-in Massachusetts, Virginia, and New York, for example. These States only ratified the Constitution on the understanding that a Bill of Rights, declaring many general principles of freedom and justice, would be acted upon promptly by the new Senate and House of Representatives and would be submitted to the States for ratification as Amendments to the Constitution. Such a Bill of Rights was adopted by the Congress in its first year, 1789, and was agreed to by the States in the form of 10 amendments before the end of 1791. We will study the principles of the Bill of Rights in the next chapter. Now it will be interesting to make a list of a few of the basic principles of the Constitution as it was at first adopted.

STANDARDS OF GOVERNMENT

First of all, the Constitutional Convention decided that three branches of Government—that which makes the laws (the Legislative), that which operates the Government and puts the laws into effect (the Executive), and that which explains the laws and settles all sorts of disagreements on legal questions (the Judiciary)-should each represent the people separately and have limited powers, largely independent of each other except for certain "checks and balances." Secondly, it decided that all men should be equal in their right to the protection of the laws. Thirdly, it deeided that all the States should be equal, that no State should receive special favors from the National Government, and that each State must recognize and respect the laws of all other States. Fourthly, it decided that every State should be guaranteed a republican form of government, with the final authority belonging to the people themselves, and with the powers of government delegated by the people to elected representatives. Fifthly, it decided that the people should always have the right to change their Constitution by the carefully considered action of their representatives in the Congress, if approved by three-fourths of the States. And sixthly, it decided that the Constitution, laws properly made by the Congress, and treaties agreed to by the President and the Senate were to be the highest law of the land—higher than the laws of any State or the orders of any public official. (See Figure 17.)

THINGS TO DO

Questions to discuss in your study group:

 At the Constitutional Convention at Philadelphia there were all sorts of delegates present. These 55 men came from different kinds of homes and daily work; they came from different parts of the country; they felt separate loyalties to their home States.

Yet, somehow among all these differences these leaders sat down and found things on which they could agree. No one of them received everything he had hoped for, but almost everyone received something he had wanted in the new form of government. In the end they agreed upon a constitutional system of government for the new Nation.

Why do you think that they agreed?

Can you find in your own life examples which show how several groups of persons have overcome difficulties for the sake of some larger purpose? Does this sort of compromise happen around us every day? Among businessmen? Among farmers? Among laborers? Why do citizens of our country have to learn to compromise in their daily contacts and lives?

2. The authority in the Constitutional Convention did not belong to one man alone. It was in a number of great leaders. Can you name some well-known group in your daily life in which the authority belongs to a number of persons? Perhaps, in which it is delegated to a commit-

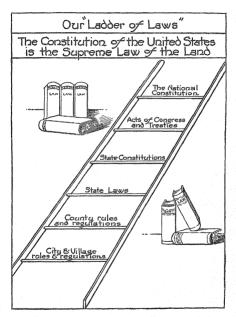


Figure 17
Our Ladder of Laws

tee? Can you give an example in which one person has all the authority?

Is there opportunity for authority in every group to which you belong? Are you a leader in any one of these groups? Why do we need many good leaders in a democratic country?

3. Why should every good citizen in this country know something about government groups? Try to make a list of the reasons why you should study national, State, and local political groups.

4. Locate your State on the outline map in Figure 2. What reasons can you give for wanting your State to have a government of its own?

Some more words which the student should understand:

ambassadors—the highest-ranking persons sent by one nation to represent it officially in dealing with other nations.

argued—gave reasons in favor of or against.

arguments-reasons in favor of or against.

article—a particular part of a writing consisting of two or more parts.

articles—written or printed statements of facts or reasons.

assenting—agreeing, or voting "yes."

Bill of Rights—an official statement of basic rights belonging to the people of a nation.

capital-place for the headquarters of the Government.

checks and balances—ways in which each principal branch of the National Government can prevent one of the other two branches from acting too fast or becoming too powerful (fully explained in a later chapter).

circulated-passed around to people.

common defense—acts for protecting all the people of a country. compact—an official agreement.

complicated—with several parts so woven together as to be hard to understand.

concurrent powers—powers which the Nation and any State may use at the same time.

consuls—officers who represent a nation in business matters in a foreign city.

contest—struggle. convinced—satisfied by argument.

deliberately-acting only after careful thought.

dissenting-voting "No."

domestic tranquillity-peace at home or in the community.

electors—persons chosen by the voters to meet and select a President and a Vice President for the United States.

establishment—setting up, putting into effect.

explicit—explained very clearly.

favorable-for instead of against.

Federal—based on an agreement between equal States.

Federal System—the central government working in agreement with State governments.

fraud-trickery.

quaranteed-made safe or certain.

justice-absolute fairness.

legal-in agreement with law, or connected with law.

liberty of conscience—freedom to think what you believe is right.

monument—something large and fine, built or kept up to remind

us of some person or past event.

oppression—cruel use of authority or power.

population—people living in some particular place or area.

posterity—our children and their children, and so on; our descendants.

Preamble—an opening statement.

press, the--anything printed and offered to the public, such as newspapers, magazines, or books.

prohibited-forbidden, not allowed.

promote-bring or force forward.

public ministers—high officials sent by one nation to represent it in dealing with another nation; lower in rank than ambassadors.

published-printed and offered to the public.

ratified—accepted and made official.

recognize-accept with approval.

republican form of government—a government by leaders who get their authority straight from the people.

reserves-saves especially for a purpose.

resolution-statement of an official group adopted by vote.

sentence—several words used together which express a complete thought.

submitted—passed on to someone else for action or assent.
sufficient—enough.

temporary-lasting only a short time.

CHAPTER 9

How Our Constitution Has Grown

"The greatness of the Constitution lies partly in its method of development, by formal and informal means, according to the needs of the people."

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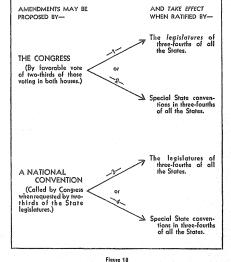
In our last chapter we learned how the 13 States ratified the Constitution and accepted the new National Government. But no form of government is likely to remain unchanged for 150 years. Times change, and the people and their needs change. The Fathers of the Constitution provided for the development of our Constitution so it could serve these changing needs. By "development" we mean an advance to meet new needs. Let us consider how our Constitution develops.

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HOW CAN FORMAL CHANGES (AMENDMENTS) BE MADE IN THE CONSTITUTION?

The Fifth Article of the Constitution provides two different ways in which changes can be proposed to the States and two different ways in which States can approve such changes and make them a part of the Constitution. These four ways (which are the rules by which such formal changes can be made) are shown in Figure 18. In the first place, (1) the United States Senate and House of Representatives may each decide, by a favorable vote of twothirds of those present, that a proposed amendment shall be approved and sent to the States for adoption. (2) If, on the other hand, the legislatures of two-thirds of the States apply to the Congress for an amendment, the Congress must call together a national convention to discuss and prepare such an amendment. In case either step (1) or (2) is taken, the consent of three-fourths of all the States must be gotten before the proposed change actually becomes

FOUR WAYS OF AMENDING OUR NATIONAL CONSTITUTION



Four Ways of Amending Our National Constitution

effective. In sending the proposed amendment to the States for their consent, the Congress may (3) direct that the legislatures of the States shall decide the question; or it (4) may call upon the States to hold special conventions (very like the Constitutional Convention which we studied about in chapter 7), each of which shall be made up of delegates from the people of that State and shall decide for or against the proposed amendment.

There have been 21 amendments in all. In the first 20, the Congress proposed the amendment and the legislatures of the States adopted it. However, in proposing the Twenty-first Amendment, the Congress directed that each State must call together its own convention to vote its decision.

You have already learned that the first 10 amendments to the Constitution made up what is usually called the Bill of Rights. These amendments stated a long list of rights which the people already had and which the National Government was forbidden to take away from them. You will find a full list of these amendments, and of the 11 others which were afterward adopted, together with the 7 original articles of the Constitution, in Figures 19, 20, and 21, on the next 3 pages.

OUR CONSTITUTION CAN GROW IN OTHER WAYS

When the Constitution of the United States was adopted in 1789, there were only about 4 million people in the United States. Today there are over 131 million. In 1789 there were no really large cities, no railroads or automobiles, no telephones or telegraphs, and very few factories. As cities, factories, railroads, motor busses, telephones, telegraphs, radio, and many other things developed, the plan of government given us by the Constitution had to be fitted to new national needs many more times than 21 amendments would take care of. The Constitution has had to be explained and interpreted so that it could meet the needs of the times. How has this been done?

THE CONSTITUTION AND ITS GROWTH BY AMENDMENTS

The Constitution as it was adopted-1789

PREAMBLE

FIRST ARTICLE

Provides for a Congress and defines its power to make laws.

SECOND ARTICLE

Provides for the election of a President and Vice President, with clearly defined powers, and for the appointment of other officials.

THIRD ARTICLE

Sets up a Supreme Court, authorizes the Congress to set up other courts, and defines their powers.

FOURTH ARTICLE

Defines relationships between the Federal Government and the States, and between the States themselves.

FIFTH ARTICLE

Tells how the Constitution may be amended.

SIXTH ARTICLE

Accepts responsibility for all debts which the Nation awad before the adoption of the Constitution, declares that the Constitution, constitutional laws, and treaties are the supreme law of the land, and provides that all public officers must take an oath to support the Constitution.

SEVENTH ARTICLE

Declares that ratification by nine States will put the Constitution into effect.

Figure 19

THE CONSTITUTION AND ITS GROWTH BY AMENDMENTS

The Bill of Rights-1791

FIRST A MENIDMENIT

Forbids the Congress to Interfere with religion, free speech, a free press, or with the right to assemble peaceably, or to petition the Government.

SECOND AMENDMENT

Guarantees to the people the right to have weapons.

THIRD AMENDMENT Guarantees against lodging soldiers in private houses without the

consent of the owners. FOURTH AMENDMENT Provides that there shall be no search or seizure of persons, houses,

goods, or papers, without a search warrant. FIFTH AMENDMENT

Declares that there shall be no trial for serious offenses without a grand jury indictment, no repeated trials for the same offense, no condemnation without trial, no one compelled to witness against himself, and no property taken for public use except at a fair price.

SIXTH AMENDMENT Requires a speedy and public trial for criminal offenses in the dis-

trict where the crime was committed, a fair jury, a plain statement of the accusation, gives the accused the right to be represented by a lawyer and to compel the attendance of his witnesses, and requires all witnesses to testify in the presence of the accused.

SEVENTH AMENDMENT

Provides that in lawsuits about anything valued at more than \$20. a trial by jury shall be allowed.

EIGHTH AMENDMENT Prohibits too large bail or fines, and cruel or unusual punishments.

NINTH AMENDMENT Declares that rights not stated in the Constitution are not therefore

taken away from the people. TENTH AMENDMENT

States that powers not delegated to the United States nor prohibited by the Constitution to the States are reserved to the States or to the people.

Figure 20

THE CONSTITUTION AND ITS GROWTH BY

Eleventh to Twenty-first Amendments
ELEVENTH AMENDMENT (1798)

Declares that the Judiciary of the United States does not have authority to hear a suit against a State if brought by a citizen of another State or a foreigner.

TWELFTH AMENDMENT (1804)

Provides and requires a better way (which is still being used) of electing the President and Vice President.

THIRTEENTH AMENDMENT (1865)

Puts an end to slavery.

FOURTEENTH AMENDMENT (1868)

Defines citizenship of the United States and of a State, forbids States to take away the rights of citizens unlawfully, defines the basis of representation in the House of Representatives, states centain disqualifications from holding public office, and confirms certain Civil War debts and disclaims others.

FIFTEENTH AMENDMENT (1870)

Declares that no citizen shall lose the right to vote because of race, color, or previous slavery.

SIXTEENTH AMENDMENT (1913)

Gives Congress power to enact income-tax laws.

SEVENTEENTH AMENDMENT (1913)
Provides that United States Senators shall be elected by the people.

EIGHTEENTH AMENDMENT (1919)

Prohibited the manufacture, sale, or transportation of alcoholic beverages. (Repealed in 1933.)

NINETEENTH AMENDMENT (1920)

Declares that no citizen shall be refused the right to vote because of being a woman.

TWENTIETH AMENDMENT (1933)

Changes the date of the *inauguration* of the President and of the opening of the Congress, and provides for filling the Presidency and Vice Presidency under certain conditions.

TWENTY-FIRST AMENDMENT (1933)

Repeals the 18th Amendment and forbids the carrying of alcoholic liquous into any State, Territory, or possession of the United States in violation of its laws.

1. THE CONSTITUTION HAS BEEN DEVELOPED THROUGH GENERAL LAWS PASSED BY THE CONGRESS

The Congress has passed laws to establish rules for the Federal courts and new courts as they have been needed. The Congress has passed laws creating the Executive Departments of the Federal Government, and also many bureaus and commissions. In this way, the Congress has actually changed and added to the organization of the Government. It has also passed laws determining who should become President if the President and the Vice President should die while in office. Many other details of government organization have been built up on the foundation of the Constitution by laws passed by the Congress.

2. THE MAKING OF TREATIES HELPS TO DEVELOP THE CONSTITUTION

Our relations with other nations are under the joint control of the President and the Senate. The Constitution provides that the President—

"shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the Senators present concur. . . ."

When the President and Senate together agree with a foreign nation upon a treaty this often helps to develop the meaning of the Constitution. The Constitution does not say whether aliens living in this country can own land. so you might think that the States would decide this matter. But the President and the Senate have made treaties with foreign governments in which the right to own land in the United States was granted to the citizens of the foreign countries. Again, the Constitution gives the Congress the power to "provide and maintain" a Navy. The Congress has usually decided how large the Navy should be by controlling the amount of money spent for it. But we have made treaties with foreign nations in which we agreed to limit the size of our Navy. Many more examples could be given to show how treaties help to develop the meaning of the Constitution.

3. THE FEDERAL COURTS HELP TO EXPLAIN THE MEANING OF THE CONSTITUTION

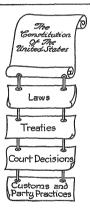
One purpose of the Federal courts is to explain or interpret our Constitution, laws, and treaties. The courts are sometimes called on to decide the meaning of words of the Constitution. A few of the laws made by Congress have been held to be unconstitutional (not in agreement with the Constitution). Many others have been held to be constitutional. The Supreme Court has approved as constitutional many acts of Congress which members of the Constitutional Convention could not possibly have had in mind at the time when the Constitution was written. What statesman of 1787 could have imagined the need for laws to regulate telegraph, telephone, or radio between the States? Yet the Supreme Court has decided that such laws, when they are drawn up in agreement with the basic principles of government given us in the Constitution, are constitutional. Such decisions, and the laws which they have approved, have enlarged and added to the Constitution without changing it.

4. CUSTOM AND THE PRACTICES OF OUR POLITICAL PARTIES HAVE ADDED MEANING TO THE CONSTITUTION

The political parties in this country have adopted different ways of nominating candidates for national offices. Neither the Constitution nor the Federal laws gives us any standards to regulate such nominations. Yet the way of choosing officers to whom the people may delegate authority is part of the plan of government built on the foundation of the Constitution.

Sometimes custom is stronger than written law. It is a custom that the President shall in most cases appoint members of his own political party to head the Executive departments of the National Government. This has proved a good way to reach the objective of the Second Article of the Constitution—the setting up of an effective executive branch to put the laws into effect.

The twenty-one formal amenòments to our National Constitution represent but one method by which our Constitution develops



Development Of Our National Constitution. By Informal Methods

Figure 22

5. RULES MADE BY GOVERNMENT AGENCIES GIVE MEANING TO THE CONSTITUTION

Many of the acts passed by the Congress are rather general. They do not take care of all the details which are necessary to put the laws into effect. This responsibility is delegated to some government agency, such as a department, bureau, or commission. Often the agencies which put the laws into effect have to make rules to fill in the details. These rules have the same general effect as acts of the Congress if they interpret the law and do not go beyond it. In this way the rules made by government agencies help to develop the plan of government outlined in the Constitution.

We can readily see that the Constitution has grown both through regular amendments and through informal methods, as Figure 22 shows. A great Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, John Marshall, said over a hundred years ago:

> "We must never forget that it is a Constitution . . . intended to endure for ages to come, and, consequently, to be adapted to the various crises of human affairs."

It should be remembered, however, that the Supreme Court of the United States may decide whether each part of the government plan built up by laws on the foundation of the Constitution is constitutional or unconstitutional.

THE CONSTITUTION HAS GROWN BY THE ADDITION OF NEW STATES TO THE NATION

One by one new States have been added to the Federal Union. Instead of the original 13 States there are today 48 States in our country. These new States sometimes were formed by dividing old States. However, the Constitution provides in the Fourth Article that a new State may only be formed out of part of an old State if the legislature of the old State gives its consent. For example, Maine separated from Massachusetts and became a new State in 1820, but only after Massachusetts had consented.

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA



Figure 23 Mann. The United States of America

New States have been organized out of territories (lands) which have been joined to the United States. Some of these lands were bought with money; some were gained by treaty or in other ways. The following table shows the new lands which have been joined to our Nation since 1789. Study also the map shown in Figure 23,

Territory Added to the United States Since 1789:

Louisiana—purchased in 1803 from France.

Florida—purchased in 1819 from Spain. Texas—annexed in 1845.

Oregon—gained in 1846 by treaty with Great Britain,

Mexican cession—gained in 1848 by treaty with Mexico.

Gadsden purchase—purchased in 1853 from Mexico.

Alaska—purchased in 1867 from Russia.

Hawaii-annexed in 1898.

Philippine Islands-gained in 1898 by treaty with Spain.

Guam-gained in 1898 by treaty with Spain.

Puerto Rico—gained in 1898 by treaty with Spain. American Samoa—gained by treaty in 1899.

Panama Canal Zone—perpetual lease in 1904 from Republic of Panama.

Virgin Islands—purchased in 1917 from Denmark.

For many years our Government owned large areas of western lands, which were not part of any State. These it governed as Territories. As time went on, the people of these Territories applied to the Congress to admit the Territories into the Union as new States.

HOW A STATE IS ADMITTED TO THE UNION

When a group of people, living in a particular area, which is not part of an existing State, wishes to set up a new State, it petitions the Congress for permission to do so. The Congress may then tell the people of that area to prepare a State constitution. The people organize to do this and offer to the Congress a State constitution which (1) sets up a representative form of government for the State group and which (2) is in no way contrary to the National Constitution. If a majority of the Congress approves of the proposed constitution and thinks that the area would

make a desirable new State, it votes favorably on a statehood bill, and the new State is then admitted as a member of the national group of States.

OUR NATION TODAY

Today we have a Nation made up of a number of parts. There are 48 States, the District of Columbia, and our possessions beyond our borders. These possessions include Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, the Philippine Islands, the Panama Canal Zone, the Virgin Islands, and a few other small islands. The people of all the States, Territories, and possessions must recognize the National Constitution as the highest law of the land. The Constitution can always grow, in the ways we have described to you, to be big enough and broad enough to take care of them all.

THINGS TO DO

Answer each of the following questions:

- 1. How many times has the National Constitution been changed by amendment?
- 2. Did the National Constitution originally contain a Bill of Rights ?
- 3. What are the four possible ways of adopting amendments to our National Constitution?
- 4. How has the meaning of the National Constitution been developed by general laws passed by the Congress?
 - 5. Can the Supreme Court change the Constitution?
 - 6. How many of our 48 States have State constitutions?
 - 7. Can the State constitutions be amended? (Find out.)

Some more new words which the student should understand:

accusation—charge of wrongdoing against a person.
accused—the person charged with wrongdoing.
adapted—changed to fit.

agencies—groups of officials or other persons selected to do some special job.

annexed-added or joined to something else.

appointment—the choice of an officeholder not made by vote.

areas—definite spaces of territory.

assemble—meet together.

bail-money or some other valuable object given to any government agency to make sure that a prisoner, if let loose, will appear again for trial.

beverages—things to drink.

bureaus—offices for public business, smaller than Executive Departments, and the people who work in them.

cession-giving up.

commissions-government groups, usually headed by several officers with equal powers.

compel-force someone to do something unwillingly.

concur-agree officially,

condemnation—a finding that a person is guilty and must be punished.

confirms-makes something stronger by agreeing to it. consent—agreement.

consequently-as a result of factors already mentioned.

contrary to-against.

crises—times when difficult decisions must be made.

defines-explains just what a thing is, or how it is done, or can be done.

departments (also bureaus, boards, commissions)-Government executive groups formed for some particular purpose, as the Navy Department, the Children's Bureau, the Federal Reserve System, the Federal Trade Commission.

details-particular parts of anything.

development—an advance to meet new needs.

develops-advances to meet new needs.

direct—guide, or cause to move in a chosen direction.

disclaims-denies any connection with or claim to.

disqualifications—qualities which prevent a person from doing some task.

effective-successfully producing the end desired.

endure-last.

fines-punishment by requiring payment of money.

formal-done according to set rules.

grand jury-a special group of citizens chosen to decide whether a person shall be brought to trial.

inauguration-the act of taking the oath of office by the President.

income tax—a payment to the Government, the amount of which is determined by the taxpayer's earnings or profits.

indictment—a legal accusation of wrongdoing, usually made by a grand jury.

informal—done in easy ways that are proper but not according to set rules.

interpreted—explained in language which the listener understands.

lawsuits—actions by which one person sues another in a law court. legislatures—lawmaking bodies.

maintain-keep up.

manufacture—the making of an object, usually by machinery.

nominating—naming a candidate for office.

perpetual lease—an arrangement by which an owner turns his property over to some one else forever in return for a yearly payment of money.

possession—anything which a person or nation owns and holds.

practices—things done many times.

practices—things done many times, proposed—offered for action or argument.

provides—makes ready for future use.

punishments-pain, suffering, or loss because of crime.

relations—well-understood connections between two or more persons or things.

repealed—canceled, given up.
seizure—quickly taking and holding by force.

take effect—operate, testify—swear to the truth of a statement.

trial—hearing in a court of justice.

violation—breaking of a rule or law.

avarrant—a legal order.

witness-see or act as a witness.

CHAPTER 10

Some Rights and Opportunities of Group Life in the United States

"My country, 'tis of thee, sweet land of liberty."

-Samuel Francis Smith.

*

In chapter 9 you learned that the first 10 amendments to the Constitution are known as the Bill of Rights, and in chapter 8 (on pp. 83 and 84) you learned about 6 basic standards or principles in the Constitution itself which recognize the rights of the people to govern themselves and to have freedom and justice. All these recognized rights of the people are the most important features of our Government and must be explained here in a chapter of their own.

*

SOME REASONS WHY ALIENS LIVING IN OUR COUNTRY WISH TO BECOME CITIZENS

Our country is the home of more than 131 million people. About 5 million of them are today not citizens of the United States; in other words, about 97 in every 100 persons are citizens. Most of these nearly 5 million noncitizens who have come to this country as immigrants intend to make their homes here for the rest of their lives. By our generous system they are given many of the same advantages which our own citizens enjoy, and can live the good life of this country in safety and happiness. After 5 years of living here they are welcome to become citizens by naturalization if they can prove good character and attachment to the principles of our Constitution. Their children born in this country become American citizens by right of birth.

Today more and more of these people are seeing how much they lose by not being citizens of this country. As noncitizens they cannot vote. They cannot take a full part in the life or government of their communities. They are learning that many jobs are open only to citizens. Often they do not get the advantage of our laws aimed to help citizens who are old or sick or unemployed. Some of them wish to be sure they will not be called back to the country from which they came, for service as soldiers. Some are afraid of being taxed by their old country. Others wish to be citizens of this country because their children are citizens.

There are also a number of unnaturalized persons living in this country who, for one reason or another, have lost the citizenship which they had when they came here. Such persons are no longer members of any country which will protect them. Many others are not sure about their citizenship. They cannot be sure that the government of their old country will agree that they are its citizens after they have lived in this country for many years. Naturally, most of these people are eager to become naturalized American citizens.

But above everything else, these noncitizens have for the most part come to love this great country with a strong and deep loyalty and are eager to have the privilege of citizenship and the right to serve this country in the same way that native-born citizens so often do.

OPPORTUNITIES SHARED BY EVERYBODY WHO LIVES IN OUR COUNTRY

Even as noncitizens, the aliens living in our country share many of the opportunities and rights of group membership.

Every law-abiding person living in the United States is free to live the kind of life which he chooses and can afford to pay for, provided that he does not interfere with the rights of others. He is free to come and go anywhere in the country. He is free to choose between many kinds of jobs, to work at his job, or, if he does not like it, to look for another. No other person has a right to take away his

earnings against his will. He is free to hold, sell, or exchange his goods as he likes. He has the advantage of our wide-spread system of public and private schools and can get a good education. He is free to discuss his problems with his neighbors. In his spare time he can play whatever kinds of games he likes. He is a person of independence, and we judge him much less by what he has than by what sort of a person he is and by what he can do. And all of this applies just as truly to the women of the community as it does to the men. So do the facts stated in the rest of this chapter.

As a member of group life in this country, every person—whether he is a citizen or not—has a place of some importance. He may decide for himself what kind of a home he will live in, and he may direct his own home life, as long as he does it peaceably. He may send his children to private or public schools, choose which religious group he wants to join, and in general look upon his family group as his own particular business and responsibility. As a member of his community, he is free to use its parks, playgrounds, public hospitals, police services, fire protection, and every other good thing which it provides for its group members.

If he is a citizen, he may become as active as he wishes in helping to direct the affairs of the community. He may take a full part in the discussions of community problems and needs. He may argue for or against a new school building, playground, street-lighting system, or paving project. He may organize a group to sign a petition asking for better police protection or better fire protection, or for any other improvement believed to be for the good of the people. In urging his community to become more active in making improvements he may himself become a leader and may be elected to public office. In fact every person is free to work as hard as he likes for his own personal good and for that of his community, State, and Nation, according to the part he decides to take in government, home, church, business, and other group activities.

BASIC RIGHTS OF MEMBERS OF OUR NATIONAL GROUP

The early settlers valued their freedom very highly. Their entire way of living was based on freedom. In this new land they were free to farm, fish, trap, or trade. They chose the land on which to build their own homes and left it if they went to newer country. The dangers of a strange new land added strength to their spirit of independence.

When their descendants formed a new nation they were careful that no one person or group of persons in it could entirely control the government. Therefore they established certain basic rights to protect all their people. These basic rights were the very foundation of the new government. And on that foundation all the rest of their duties and privileges were built up.

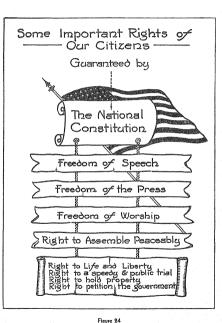
THE BILL OF RIGHTS

As we have already told you, that famous group of 55 men who wrote our National Constitution in Philadelphia in the summer of 1787 did not at first decide to put a statement of the basic rights of the people into it. But while they discussed the new Constitution and after they sent it to the States to be voted on, there was much complaint because it contained no "bill of rights." A number of the States would not accept the Constitution until they received a promise that a more complete statement of principles would be added. So by the end of 1791, the 10 amendments, which have since been called the Bill of Rights, were adopted by the Congress and the States. (For some of these special rights, see Figure 24.)

This Bill of Rights speaks throughout of "the people" and of the rights of "persons" and does not try to limit to citizens alone the freedom and justice which it insists upon. Let us now study some of the rights which are guaranteed to us in this way.

THE RIGHT TO JOIN ANY RELIGIOUS GROUP WE CHOOSE

The very first amendment in the Bill of Rights of the Constitution forbids the National Government to do a number of things. Let us read it.



Some Important Rights of Our Citizens

FIRST AMENDMENT

"Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free ceercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances."

We see, first of all, that the Government is to be kept separate from religion. Our citizens are free to join any religious body (or none at all), and each religious body in this country is free to practice its own beliefs and forms of worship; the Government will not interfere, so long as the members have a proper regard for the law and the peace of the community. In the past, governments have even carried on wars against religious groups and have persecuted them eruelly. In some foreign countries today, the citizens are no longer free to choose their own churches. This right ("freedom of worship") is very dear to Americans, who believe it is one of the real tests of a truly free nation

THE RIGHT TO FREEDOM OF SPEECH AND OF THE PRESS

The First Amendment also guarantees us against any action by the Government which will interfere with our right to say, write, print, or publish anything we wish, so long as it does not injure someone else unjustly. Today when the rights of citizens to talk and write freely is being denied in so many parts of the world, we are especially proud of this national right. Of course, if we hurt people by false statements in our writings or speech, or if we damage someone's reputation unjustly, we can be sued in a court of law. But within these limits we can discuss any question freely. We can write what we wish to our friends. We can eriticize our Government when we think it is wrong.

The right of freedom of the press is a strong protection for free government. Newspapers and magazines are free to print the opinions of all sorts of people who have had different lives and experiences and who have different ideas about national problems. Many of these ideas may not be wise or correct, but people in this country know that they are not obliged to believe everything they read. It is safer to discuss all sides of a subject and to let everyone have his say than to try to shut off discussion. In a country where the final authority belongs to the people it is important that the people be informed fully about national problems. It is also important that government officials shall know what the people are thinking and saying.

THE RIGHT TO ASSEMBLE PEACEABLY

Another of the basic rights which is guaranteed to us by the First Amendment is the freedom to come together in groups for any peaceable purpose. We call this the "right to assemble peaceably." More than 300 years ago, in 1620, while the Pilgrims were sailing toward America in their little ship, the Mayflower, they assembled in the cabin many times in the long 3 months of the voyage and talked about the kind of government they would like to set up when they reached the new country. What form of government would they choose? How would officials be chosen? How would laws be made? They answered some of these questions. They wrote their ideas of government on paper. They called the agreement the "Mayflower Compact." It contained some of the ideas of government which we have in the United States today.

Ever since that time our people have recognized the value of quiet discussion and planning and have especially valued the right to meet together in groups to discuss their problems. In some parts of the world today, when groups gather to discuss problems, they are suspected of plotting against their government. In our country all of our groups, whether study groups, political groups, social clubs, or any other kind of lawful groups, meet when and where they please. They do not have to get the Government's permission and they need not fear interference from the police.

You have probably noticed that groups which assemble to protest against something the Government is doing are given as much police protection as patriotic parades. No official in this country has the right to prevent a group of people who disagree with him from meeting peaceably to criticize him. The final authority in this country belongs to all the people, and they are protected in this authority by their right of peaceable assembly.

THE RIGHT TO PETITION THE GOVERNMENT FOR A REDRESS OF GRIEVANCES

The Bill of Rights also guarantees that, in addition to assembling peaceably, people may send petitions to the Government. Any person or group of persons may petition any government body to change its policies, to put a stop to things being done or planned which are believed to be harmful, to reduce expenses, or to extend its services. If you live anywhere in the United States, you have a right to send letters and petitions to your senators or representatives in the National or State lawmaking body. You have a right to petition any officer of your government who is handling a matter in which you are interested. In your own community you have the right to petition the proper government official to make an unsightly lot into an attractive playground, to make a crossing more safe for the school children, or to repair the streets. If you live in the country, you may wish to petition your local government to build new farm-to-market roads, or to promote a county fair. Groups like your own study class have often sent petitions to government officials or agencies. This does not mean that petitions are always answered favorably. Both wise and unwise petitions reach the Government. Public officials must be free to decide honestly whether to grant a petition or to deny it.

Discuss this right of petition in your group and have your leader help you to write out, for practice, a petition to the proper official requesting some needed improvement in your community.

THE RIGHT TO BE SAFE IN OUR LIVES AND HOMES

In the Second, Third, and Fourth Amendments, the Bill of Rights guarantees the safety of the people from vio-These three amendments remind us of the kind of government which some of the royal governors who were sent over to the colonies by King George III of England had tried to impose upon the liberty-loving colonists. These amendments were proposed by members of the First Congress in 1789; and that was only 15 years after the unhappy time when the colonists seemed helpless against the great military power of England. Between the end of the war with the French and Indians in 1763 and the beginning of the war against England in 1775, some royal governors tried to take all weapons away from the colonists. They sent soldiers to live in the houses of peaceful citizens without asking permission. And they often sent soldiers to search people's houses and to seize their property without any right or legal permit. People's lives and homes were not safe.

Remembering that, the people of the United States added to their new Constitution the Second Amendment, which provided that the National Government should never take away the right of the people to keep and bear arms (weapons) and to have a militia of citizen soldiers. The Third Amendment provided that in peacetime no soldiers could be lodged in any private house without the consent of the owners, and in wartime soldiers could be quartered in private houses only according to laws passed by the lawmaking branch of the Government. And the Fourth Amendment provided that people had a right to be safe from search and seizure except under a search warrant issued by a law officer and telling where to look and what to look for. These three amendments gave the homes of Americans as much safety as the Englishman himself claimed when he said, "The house of everyone is to him as his castle."

THE RIGHT TO FAIR AND JUST TREATMENT IN THE LAW COURTS

One of the most important principles of freedom and justice is that any person can go before a judge who is a representative of all the people and is a part of the people's government, and can get a fair hearing and a just and honest decision on any question concerning his legal rights. The Fifth, Sixth, Seventh, and Eighth Amendments guarantee to the people the following rights of fair trial:

- Nobody shall be made to stand trial for a serious offense (except in time of war or public danger) unless a grand jury has heard the charges presented and has voted an indictment.
- 2. Nobody shall be put in danger of death or imprisonment by being tried twice for the same offense.
- Nobody can be forced to testify about things which may prove that he himself is guilty of a crime.
- 4. Nobody shall be deprived of life, liberty, or property without a proper trial in a court.
- 5. No private property may be taken for public use without a fair price being paid.
- Anybody accused of crime has a right to a quick and public trial by an honest jury in the State and district where the crime was committed.
- Anybody accused shall be told plainly what crime he is accused of.
- Anybody accused shall have the right to hear and question (usually through his lawyer) all witnesses against him.
- 9. Anyone accused shall have the right to compel the appearance, at the trial, of witnesses who can tell his side of the story, and to have a lawyer to question witnesses and to plead his case.

10. In ordinary law suits, not involving crimes, if the disputes are about property worth more than \$20, the parties to the suit shall have the right of a trial by jury.

11. A person shall not be denied his freedom during a trial because the judge has set too high a figure for his bail.

 All money fines in punishment of lawbreaking must be reasonable in amount, according to the nature of the offense.

 Nobody shall be punished in cruel and unusual ways for breaking the law.

These provisions, written into the Constitution by the Fifth, Sixth, Seventh, and Eighth Amendments, are a very strong defense of the liberties of the people. In the past history of nations tyrants and dictators have crushed out liberty among their peoples by imprisoning patriots without trial on false charges or by holding trial in such a way that the citizens accused could not learn what they were accused of, or could not get witnesses to prove their innocence, or had to plead their cause before a judge who was not fair. Even today in some parts of the world, men and women are accused and condemned in haste and in secret and are "railroaded" (as we Americans call it) to prison without a chance of proving their innocence. The Bill of Rights protects the people of the United States in their freedom to say, think, and do the thing needed for their welfare, provided they do not break any laws made by the lawmakers whom they themselves have elected.

THE PEOPLE KEEP FOR THEMSELVES ALL THE RIGHTS WHICH THEY HAVE NOT DELEGATED

The Ninth and Tenth Amendments make clear that the authority in the United States belongs to "the people." The Ninth Amendment says that the rights already described in the Constitution and the first eight amendments are not the only rights of the people, and that other rights are not taken away from the people because the Constitution and amendments do not mention them. The Tenth Amendment says that any powers not delegated by the Constitution to the National Government, nor definitely taken away from the States, shall be reserved (belong) to the States, and to "the people." These two amendments thus recognize the people of the United States as the real partners in all the government organization and agencies.

THE PEOPLE SHALL ALWAYS HAVE THE RIGHT TO A REPUBLICAN FORM OF GOVERNMENT

This right is a part of the Constitution itself and was a very unusual thing when the Constitution was adopted. All the great nations of Europe were kingdoms or empires and most of them were autocracies in which the king or emperor had all the authority, the "last word" which settled all questions without the consent of the people. But the leaders of the new Nation promised that the people should always have a form of government in which the authority would belong to them and would be used by their representatives for the good of all. Any citizen who has reached a given age may be chosen to represent the people among whom he lives. 'All men are equal as far as the enforcement of the laws is concerned. This, in general, is what is meant by a republican form of government.

SPECIAL RIGHTS OF CITIZENS

A citizen is a full member of the United States of America. An unnaturalized person may live safely in this country and share in the rights of freedom and justice which we have been describing, but he cannot have a part in government activities by voting, by serving as a representative of his neighbors or his district, by helping to manage the government, or by holding a government job. He has to take the kind of government which citizens of the United States give him, in his village or city, in his State or in the Nation. It is generally a good government, but an alien, as long as he remains so, cannot help to change it to meet changing conditions. In most States aliens cannot be lawyers or doctors or get licenses to engage in certain other businesses. In many States they do not get the benefit of social-security laws and other laws to help citizens in time of need.

THE RIGHT TO VOTE

Almost all citizens over 21 years old have the right to vote. Each of the 48 States has the power to decide which

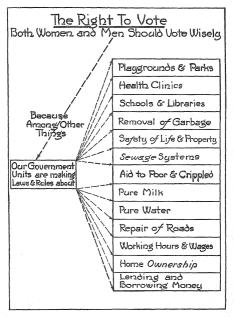


Figure 25 The Right to Vote

of its citizens may vote, and they generally provide that, before qualifying to vote, a citizen must have lived in the State long enough to settle down and begin making himself a home. Some States will not let citizens vote unless they can read and write. Most of the States refuse voting rights to idiots, insane persons, and those who have been convicted of serious crimes. The Constitution of the United States guarantees that no citizen shall be refused the right to vote because of race, color, or sex.

Each citizen should do his very best to vote wisely. He should try to think for himself after hearing and reading as much as he can on a given question or set of candidates. Women should use their right to vote and should help to choose good officials. Today our different governments are making thousands of laws and rules. Many of these are about our homes, schools, children, and neighborhood living. In towns and cities, as well as in the State and National Governments, laws and rules are constantly being made about such things as our work and business, and the safety of our homes, our health, and our money. Study Figure 25 and see how many of the subjects of laws or rules listed there are to be found in your own neighborhood or community.

It is only through wise voting that we can elect better officials who will give us a modern, up-to-date government. It is only through frequent elections that we can learn what the people want, whom they wish to choose to manage their government, and how they believe the government should be run. In our country we believe in "the rule of the majority." This means that decisions must be made according to the votes of more than half of those voting. If many of our citizens get careless and forget to vote, the "rule of the majority" may become the rule of just a few.

THINGS TO DO

Questions to discuss in your study group:

1. How many reasons can you think of, which are likely

to make aliens living in our country want to become naturalized citizens?

2. Make a list of the valuable rights which members of your group have shared, even as noncitizens living in your community.

| 3. Would you answer "yes" or "no" to each of the fol- | | | |
|---|----|-----|--|
| lowing statements? | | | |
| Yes | No | 1. | Is an alien free to share in all the rights and opportunities of government in the United States? |
| | | 2. | Does an alien share in the personal rights which are guaranteed to us in the Bill of Rights? |
| | | 3. | Under the Constitution, may people in the United States be required to attend church? |
| | | 4. | May you say anything you please so long as it is true? |
| | | 5. | May newspapers print opinions which are not the same as those of the political party in power? |
| | | 6. | Do citizens of the United States have a right to assemble (meet together) peaceably? |
| | | 7. | If a street in your community is dark and badly lighted, may you petition the public officials for better lighting? |
| | | 8. | In time of peace, could the Government force you to let soldiers live in your home if you did not wish to have them? |
| | | 9. | Can an accused person be held for many years before being granted a trial in this country? |
| | | 10. | Could a judge sentence an accused person to be tortured to death? |
| | | 11, | Can the National Government claim powers which have not been given to it by the |
| | | | Constitution? |

Yes No
 12. Can an alien serve as a representative of his community in a government position?
 13. Is it necessary for every qualified citizen to vote in order to keep this a true republican form of government?

Some more words which the student should understand:

abridging-making smaller, decreasing.

attachment-devotion, loyalty.

autocracies—governments in which one person has all the final authority.

criticize—find fault with a person or thing.

deprive-forced to give up something.

descendants-all the children, grandchildren, great-grandchildren, etc., of the same parents.

diotators—leaders who have autocratic authority for a short time.

exchange-trade, barter.

exercise-use or practice.

generous-free about giving things away.

idiots-persons without sound minds from birth.

impose-lay a burden or weight on.

imprisonment-condition of being locked up in prison.

innocence—being not guilty.

insane-mentally unbalanced; mad; crazy.

law-abiding-obeying the law.

licenses—authority to do certain acts or carry on certain businesses.

noncitizens—persons who are not citizens of the country in which they live.

ownership-authority over things which belong to one.

patriots—persons who love their country and try to improve it.

peaceably—in a peaceful way.

permit—a written or printed card authorizing a person to do something.

policies-plans for present or future official action.

practice-do a thing many times.

project-plan for work to be done.

quartered-given a place to live (usually said of soldiers).

"railroaded"—an American expression meaning that the accused has been sent to jail without a fair chance of telling his side. redress of grievances—changes to correct conditions which put persons in danger or make them unhappy or uncomfortable.

reputation—what other people think and say about a person,
respecting—about, with relation to.

rule of the majority—the vote of more than half of those voting.

sewage—waste and undesirable liquids or other matters carried off by sewers.

Social Security—arrangement made by the Government to protect people against the hardships of unemployment, illness, blindness, old age, etc.

sued—forced to appear in a law court to answer someone's claim of wrong or damage.

suspected-believed to be guilty.

tortured-put under extreme pain.

tyrants—heads of countries who rule by force and cruelty. violence—rought treatment, force,

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CHAPTER 11

Giving Our Government the Authority Needed for Its Work

"We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights, that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed—That whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new government, laying its foundation on such principles and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness."

-From the Declaration of Independence, July 4, 1776.

July

In chapter 9 you learned how our National Constitution has grown. In chapter 10 we studied the Bill of Rights, which was added to the Constitution shortly after it was adopted and which declared certain basic principles and standards as the foundation of our whole plan of government. Now we are ready to study the authority of our Government. We are going to learn where the many units of our Government get their right to do things and how they use that right. Remember, this is one of the factors which runs through all our group life. (Review Figure 6.)

FINAL AND DELEGATED AUTHORITY

We have learned that in almost all groups there is final authority (what we called in chapter 3 the "last word") and also delegated authority (authority especially given or passed on to some person or persons). Very often the final authority belongs to all the members of the group. But the members of nearly all groups delegate some of their authority to chosen representatives.

There must be some authority in every business. Think about the grocery store in your own neighborhood. Would you want to do business there if no one had final control over it? You probably know the owner of the business-the person with final authority. He has the last word in buying and selling his goods. He has the final word when he hires or "fires" his helpers, and he is responsible for the kind of store he runs. You can go and complain if you are not satisfied. If no one had final control, the store would soon close. People would not have enough confidence in it to buy groceries there. However, if the man who owns the grocery store has other persons working for him, he must delegate some of his authority to them. He must delegate to his clerks the right to sell groceries to customers. Perhaps he delegates to someone the right to buy groceries at wholesale prices. So here again we find both final and delegated authority.

Or let us take the example of the milkman who delivers milk to our homes. This milkman must get a permit stating his right to sell and deliver milk; and this permit will be his written authority to do his work. It is issued by the town health officer or some other representative of the final authority, which belongs to all the people of the community. Because a milkman has been given such a permit we say that he is properly authorized to sell and deliver milk.

If a friend of yours happens to own a farm, he has the final authority to make a decision to sell it, or even to give it away. If someone tells him that he does not have this final authority (called ownership) to sell the farm, he can ask a government official in his county to help him prove his authority through records of ownership kept by the county government. These records are his proof of authority and ownership. If he rents the farm to some-body else, he delegates enough authority so that the tenant can use his farm buildings and cultivate the land. How-

ever, final authority to sell or give away the farm remains with the owner.

Even a small girl who is sent by her family group to a grocery store to buy a pound of coffee has had some authority delegated to her. She has been given the authority to buy the coffee. The groceryman believes that she has been given this authority or he would not sell her the coffee on credit.

There is delegated authority in every branch of the government. If you are planning to take the examination for United States citizenship, you will want to be sure that you are being examined by the proper official, who has the delegated authority to do his work. Certainly you would be very sorry if you were to take your examination and find later that the person who gave it was not properly authorized as an examiner. But because you have confidence in our Government, you feel sure that the examiner who talks to you has had authority properly delegated to him by the people's Government. The examiners of applicants for naturalization are only a small part of our Government, but every single part of it must have authority to do its work.

You depend on the policemen in your community to keep order and to arrest criminals. Suppose a group of gangsters were to dress as policemen and come into your neighborhood. They might enter your home, arrest you, and even take your life. They would be a group of persons doing things without authority. The real policeman usually wears some sort of badge and carries some kind of card or paper which tells who he is and proves that he has been authorized to do his work.

THE AUTHORITY OF OUR NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

When we come to consider where our government groups get their authority, we remember that the people of the country have the last word. (See Figure 26.) It was "The People" who adopted the Constitution and gave the Government its authority to do things. Since then every

Location Of Final Authority In The Government Of The United States

"We the people of the United States" hold the final authority. We delegate, (passion) some authority to our representatives who serve us.



Figure 26

voting member of our national group has had a voice in deciding what the Government shall do.

We explained earlier that in most groups in this country we decide questions by the "rule of the majority" (which means that the side which gets more than half the votes wins). This way of deciding things is a democratic way. If we believe in it, clearly we believe in the good judgment of the plain citizen, for we accept the judgment of the majority as binding on all of us.

Some of our groups are not democratically controlled. In families, for instance, it would be very unusual to make decisions by the rule of the majority. Experience has fully proved that the parents are better fitted to exercise authority than one or more of the children. In some other groups it may be unwise for every member to have an equal share of the final authority.

THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES PLACES THE FINAL AUTHORITY IN THE HANDS OF THE PEOPLE

As we have learned, our Constitution has been interpreted by many court decisions, has been changed by 21 amendments, and has been developed by many new laws and treaties and regulations. But the simple fact has remained true throughout the years, that no interpretation or change has ever been suggested which would take the final authority of our Government out of the hands of the people.

The Constitution outlines a division of the delegated authority to different government groups. The Constitution speaks for the people in dividing up the delegated authority. It states which parts of the Government shall have the authority to do this thing or that thing. The people make up too large a group to decide matters in some great mass meeting, as they used to do 300 years ago in their small town meetings.

The Constitution has worked out a plan of representative government to take the place of our earlier mass meetings of the people. When people were few, nobody needed a representative at a town meeting to make laws because every person could go himself. Now we vote to elect our representatives to make our laws. We help to choose others to be judges and interpret the laws, and still others to enforce the laws and put them into effect.

DELEGATED AUTHORITY IN OUR NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

After our representatives have been chosen, they take office and represent us in doing the things we have given them authority to do. For example, the people cannot sit down in a great group and make their own laws; so through the Constitution they have delegated this authority to representatives especially chosen to act as lawmakers. We call this body of national lawmakers the Congress of the United States. The people cannot go out in a great group to enforce the laws; so through the Constitution they have delegated this authority to the President and his helpers. whom we call the Executive Branch of our National Government. The people also need someone to interpret or explain our national laws for them, to settle disagreements between citizens of different States, and to decide on the punishment for lawbreaking against the National Government. Certainly the people cannot meet together in one body to do these things. So they have delegated this power to the judges of our national courts of justice-whom we call the Federal Judiciary.

All of this makes it easy to understand why people speak of having a government of delegated powers, or a representative form of government. (See Figure 27.)

In much the same way our Constitution speaks for the people in delegating certain powers to the National Government but reserving other powers to be delegated to the State governments. Study Figure 28, which shows this division of authority. It also shows that the Constitution permits both the National Government and the State governments to do certain very necessary things, such as collecting taxes, borrowing money, and setting up law courts. These powers are known as the "concurrent powers." You

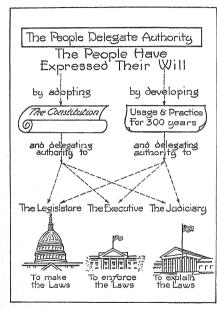


Figure 27
The People Delegate Authority

DELEGATED POWERS IN THE FEDERAL SYSTEM

A. POWERS OF THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT (those DELEGATED to it)

FXAMPLES

To control relations with foreign nations.

To punish crimes against the United States.

To establish post offices and post roads.

To coin money and regulate its value.

To keep up an army and a navy. To declare war and make peace.

To set standards for weights and measures.

To regulate commerce between the States and with foreign countries.

To make uniform laws about naturalization and bankruptcy.

To protect authors and inventors by giving copyrights and patents.

To admit new States and to control the territory of the United States.

To make all laws necessary and proper for carrying into effect the expressly stated powers and all other powers granted by the United States Constitution.

B. CONCURRENT POWERS C. PROHIBITED POWERS

EXAMPLES

To borrow money.

To collect taxes. To build public works.

To charter banks.

To establish courts.
To help agriculture and industry.
To protect the public health.

EXAMPLES
To deny civil rights (such as freedom of speech, press, religion, and assembly).

To pass laws which make illegal something which has already been done legally and honestly.

To pass a law which finds any person guilty without trial.

D. POWERS OF THE STATES (called RESERVED powers) EXAMPLES

To authorize the establishment of local governments.

To establish and keep up schools.

To regulate city government groups. To provide for a State militia.

To regulate commerce within the borders of the State.

To regulate labor, industry, and business within the State.

To provide care for orphans and paupers, and for blind, crippled, insane,

and other helpless persons.

To make laws on all other subjects not prohibited to the States by the National or State Constitution, and not delegated to the National Government.

Figure 28

will also learn from Figure 28 that there are certain powers that all our government groups are forbidden to exercise. The people could make use of all these powers if they wished to, but the majority have always felt that the people would get on better without them.

DELEGATED POWERS CAN BE WITHDRAWN BY THE PEOPLE

The people have the right to add to, or take away from, the authority which they have delegated. If a large enough number of voters wanted to change the amount of authority given to the President and his helpers, they could do so by insisting on an amendment to the Constitution. In the same way they could give more power or less power to the courts or to the Congress. And when the people wish to take away the authority from any particular group of officials whom they have elected, they can simply "vote them out of office" at the next election.

AUTHORITY IN SMALLER GOVERNMENT UNITS

The State constitutions provide that the final authority within each State belongs to the people of that State. The people have the "last word" about their State government, so long as they do nothing to interfere with the National Constitution, which is the highest law in the land.

Each of the 48 State constitutions gives its people three branches of government, the legislative, executive, and judicial. To the legislative branch the people, through the State constitution, delegate authority to make the laws. To the executive branch they delegate authority to enforce the laws. To the judicial branch they delegate authority to explain the laws.

If the people of any State feel that it is wise to make changes in their State government, they can amend their constitution, although they cannot change the representative form of their government, which is guaranteed to them by the Constitution of the United States. Each State constitution provides a method by which it can be amended.

A very interesting example of how the people of a State

can make important changes in their government happened in the State of Nebraska in 1935. Nebraska's constitution provided for a legislature divided into two "houses," a Senate and a House of Representatives, just as the Constitution of the United States does. But the people of Nebraska decided that a single lawmaking body could represent their interests better. Therefore they amended their State constitution to provide that after January 1937 the legislature should consist of only one house. In other words, the people of Nebraska decided to have their laws made by a smaller number of representatives, all meeting together. They made a very great change in the organization of their State government but did not change its representative form.

CITIES USUALLY HAVE CHARTERS INSTEAD OF CONSTITUTIONS

A city's charter is given to it by the State in which it is located. In the charter can be found a statement of the authority given to the city government by the State. State laws may be passed from time to time to change the charter and give more authority to the city government, or to take away some of the authority which it already has.

As long as the city government stays inside the limits of the authority given to it by the State, the people of the city have the final word. They select their own officers to make their local laws—often called "ordinances"—and to carry on the other business of the city. If the people who make up the city's population wish to change their charter, they have to petition the State government for the changes which they want. The State assembly of lawmakers then decides whether or not to grant the petition.

COUNTIES AND TOWNS DO NOT HAVE CONSTITUTIONS OF THEIR

Counties and towns depend on the State constitution and State laws to tell them what authority they may exercise. So long as the people within the counties and towns do not go beyond the authority given them by the State, they have the last word in their local affairs.

STIMMARY

In this chapter we have studied the many government groups to which we all belong. Each of us is a member of a national group, of a State group, of a county group, and of either a city, town, or village group. The authority in each group belongs to its own members, but some of it is delegated to representatives to do parts of each group's work.

Study Figure 29 and you will see that our government groups within the United States consist of one Nation, 48 States, over 3,000 counties, thousands of cities, and about 175,000 smaller government units. In every one of these the people have the final authority, but in the smaller groups they must act within the limits of the power given to them by the largest group of all, the whole American people. And in each group they delegate some of this authority to the officials whom they have selected to represent them.

THINGS TO DO

Can you select the word or phrase that will make each of the following statements read correctly?

- 1. Only the National Government has the authority to-
 - (1) make treaties with foreign countries.
 - (2) make laws.
 - (3) enforce laws.
- The State governments have authority to—
 - (1) admit new States into the Union.
 - (2) declare war.
 - (3) establish local government within the State.
- 3. The National Government has the authority to-
 - establish a State church.
 - (2) make uniform laws about naturalization.
 - establish county governments.
- 4. The powers granted the National Government in the Constitution are called
 - prohibited powers.

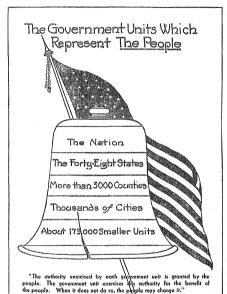


Figure 29

The Government Units Which Represent the People

- (2) reserved powers.
- (3) delegated powers.
- 5. When you are examined for United States citizenship, you will be examined by—
 - (1) authorized examiners.
 - (2) unauthorized examiners.
 - (3) the sheriff of your county.
- 6. The Constitution of the United States places the final authority in our Nation in the hands of—
 - (1) the President.
 - (2) the people.
 - (3) the Congress.
- 7. We call the body of men elected to make our National laws the—
 - (1) Legislative Branch.
 - (2) Executive Branch.
 - (3) Judicial Branch.
 - 8. Our courts of law and justice are sometimes called-
 - (1) the executive.
 - (2) the committees.
 - (3) the judiciary.
- Our form of government, in which we elect officials to act for us, is called—
 - (1) a dictatorship.
 - (2) a representative government.
 - (3) an oligarchy.

Some more words the student should understand:

abolish-put an end to.

alter-change.

arrest-take or keep a person by authority of law.

authorized-given power or the right to act.

bankruptoy-inability to pay one's debts.

civil—concerning the private legal rights of a citizen and the protection of them.

copyrights—legal rights protecting the work of authors from being used by other people. credit-arrangement by which a person can get goods or money from another person who trusts him to pay for them later. deriving—drawing or receiving.

destructive-having the power to destroy, ruin, or tear down. effect—bring to pass.

houses-organized groups of lawmakers.

instituted—set up, established, or organized. judicial-having to do with a court of justice.

located-placed. mass meeting-meeting open to everybody who comes.

ordinances-city laws. orphans-children whose parents have died.

passed-adopted and made binding on the people.

tenant-a person who is delegated or allowed to use the property of another person, usually in return for the payment of rent. uniform—of the same form with others.

wholesale-the buying of large quantities of goods by merchants. to be sold to the people in smaller quantities.

CHAPTER 12

How the People Make Their Wishes Known by Voting

"This Government, with its *institutions*, belongs to the people who *inhabit* the United States."

-Abraham Lincoln.

In the last four chapters we have learned a great deal about the rights of the people of the United States and about the final authority which they always have and which they generally pass on to persons chosen to represent them in their government. Let us now consider "the People" themselves and learn how they make their wishes known at election time by voting.

WHO ARE "THE PEOPLE"?

We have called attention again and again to the fact that the final authority—the last word—in our Government belongs to the whole American people. This means that there is no one ruler to tell the people what to do. There are about 127 million citizens in the United States. The citizens are the rulers of this country. They have chosen a President to represent them as the head of their Government.

Only about one-half of the people of the United States can take part in the government by voting. However, after leaving out all those too young to vote, all those who have not lived long enough in one place, and all those who are otherwise disqualified, either by law or by their own failure to register for voting, there are only about 60 million of our population who are actually qualified voters.

The whole group of voters is called the electorate. When any large part of the electorate fails to vote, those persons who fail to do this duty are helping to weaken government "by the people"; for only through voting can the people keep up their final authority. Elected officers of the government, from the President of the United

States to the city alderman or the village constable are simply representatives delegated to carry out the wishes of the people; and it is hard to learn what those wishes really are if the people do not come forward and express them clearly by voting.

We Americans believe in "the rule of the majority," which means that any candidate or any proposal which gets over one-half of all the votes wins. But if a great many people should be too careless or too indifferent to vote, the whole number of votes would be small, and the number making up the majority would of course be smaller still. In such a case, a few people would be able to elect officials and to exercise the final authority for the whole people. Then we would have an oligarchy (rule of the few) instead of a democracy (rule of the whole people). Turn back to pages 28 and 18 for the explanation of these words.

WHO MAY VOTE?

Probably you are wondering just what groups of people make up the electorate, since the right to vote is not given to everybody. Each one of the 48 States has the right to decide the voting qualifications of its own citizens. However, the Constitution of the United States provides that the right of citizens to vote cannot be taken away because of (1) race, (2) color, (3) sex, or (4) previous condition of servitude (slavery). Except for these limitations each State is free to establish any qualifications which it may decide upon for its voters.

Voting qualifications in the 48 States are much alike. Persons who are refused the right to vote usually belong to the following classes:

- 1. Persons under 21 years old (called "minors").
- 2. Criminals.
- 3. Noncitizens.
- 4. Insane or feeble-minded persons.
- 5. In about 20 States, persons who cannot read or write.

There are a few other groups of persons who are refused the right to vote in some States. However, we usually think of any citizen of sound mind (1) who is not a child, (2) who is not a criminal, and (3) who has lived for long enough in a place to have a real home there, as being a "qualified voter"—that is, as a person who is fit and authorized to help in choosing our representatives and in expressing the wishes of the people as to their government.

Our groups of "qualified voters" are a most important part of our democratic system. For if we have set up a government to do hundreds of services for us, it is clear that we must choose officials who can be trusted to do this work well. Our Government can be no better than the officials who are chosen to carry out the wishes of the people. We place a heavy responsibility on citizens when we ask them to choose the best kind of men and women to be representatives of the people.

HOW DO WE LEARN THE WILL OF THE PEOPLE?

In the home it is easy to learn the opinions of members of a family about any question. They can sit down in a family group and talk things over. Each member can state his opinion directly. The same thing can be done in a small group of working people—let us say, of farmers or factory workers or salesmen in stores. In some of our groups we learn the opinions of members by taking a written vote after a free discussion. In other groups we learn the opinions of the members by taking a spoken vote. But in some groups the membership is so large that the members cannot get together and hold a discussion and take a vote on short notice. How, then, can the will of the majority be learned in our Nation or our State or other large groups?

EXPRESSING OUR OPINION ON GOVERNMENT MATTERS

Whether it be in the National group, the State group, or the county, city, or village group, citizens of our country have a number of chances to express their wishes and in that way to take an important part in their government. Some of these chances are listed below:

1. THE QUALIFIED CITIZEN CAN VOTE AT ELECTION TIME

Whether it is a matter of electing a President of the United States or a new mayor for a city or a new road commissioner for a county, every qualified voter is given a chance to go to the polling place and express his choice as to the person who is going to represent him. This is one of the ways in which our country gives equal opportunities to all its qualified voters.

2. THE QUALIFIED CITIZEN CAN DO HIS PART IN NOMINATING CANDIDATES FOR OFFICE

In most government groups a number of persons are nominated (named) to be voted for at an election. We cannot choose between the candidates—persons who are "running for office"—until they have been officially nominated, because the election officials cannot put every likely person's name on the ballot.

In some States candidates are nominated by petition. Their laws provide that, if at a reasonable time before the election a certain number of voters sign a petition to have some citizen's name printed on the ballot, the election officials are obliged to do what these persons ask and to give the voters a chance to vote for the citizen thus prominated

Sometimes candidates are nominated at a primary election. In such cases a special election is held, not to give all the voters a chance to elect someone to office but to give the members of each party a chance to choose their nominees by their votes. At a primary election each political party has a separate ballot to be used by its own members or those who wish to help choose its candidates.

Sometimes candidates are nominated by a convention. By this method the members of a party send chosen delegates to a meeting place to talk things over and then to select candidates to run for office.

The most important conventions are those which meet every fourth year to name candidates for the officers of President and Vice President of the United States. Each important political party holds such a meeting—called a National Convention—where its delegates get together from all parts of the country in some convenient meeting place and decide on its program—called its "platform"—and select its candidates.

The National Convention of a political party is usually a group of more than a thousand delegates chosen from all of the 48 States. These delegates are chosen in some States by primary elections and in some by State conventions. When they meet in the Convention they all try to choose candidates for whom they think that a majority of the voters will be likely to vote.

After the National Conventions have nominated candidates for President and Vice President, each party conducts a campaign in which it tries to win as many votes as possible for its candidates. It holds public meetings, organizes parades, gives away buttons and badges, sends out books and pamphlets, broadcasts speeches, and sends its speakers all over the country trying to persuade qualified citizens to vote for the candidates whom it has nominated and hopes to elect.

Similar campaigns are carried on in each of the States when State officials are going to be chosen by the people.

The citizen should keep as well informed as possible before every election, so that he will know what candidates are best qualified for public office. He should also use his best efforts to have honest and able persons nominated by his party.

3. THE QUALIFIED CITIZEN MAY WISH TO BECOME A MEMBER OF A POLITICAL PARTY

In our country and in each of our States, groups of people who think somewhat alike on political questions have formed political parties. They wish to use the party as an organization through which they can get the kind of government services they want. Each party has its program and its platform, which set forth the wishes and plans of its members.

In this country we have what is sometimes called a

"two-party system." This means that we have two "major" or larger parties, the Democratic Party and the Republican Party. These are two large groups of people who usually oppose each other on political questions and usually favor different candidates for office.

From time to time there have been formed smaller parties, sometimes called "third parties." These smaller parties usually are made up of people who are not satisfied with either of the larger parties. They offer suggestions for new policies which they believe will help the country or their own group. Sometimes, when these suggestions have proved to be good, they have been accepted by the American people and enacted into laws. Sometimes they have been taken over by one or both of the major parties and added to their platforms or programs. The third parties often act as critics of the promises and performances of the major parties. By so doing they help to force the major parties to keep their platforms up to date as the needs of the people change from time to time. In the past a new party sometimes was successful in electing a President and Vice President and other officials, as the Republican Party was in 1860; and sometimes third parties have succeeded in electing their candidates in the States but not in the Nation.

Through the organization of the political parties the voters elect thousands of officials to operate their government. If you study Figure 30 you can see how the people elect representatives in different government groups,

The election of all members of the National House of Representatives and of one-third of the members of the United States Senate is held in every even-numbered year on the Tuesday following the first Monday in November. Some States elect State officials on the same day.

Each of the major national parties is made up of many smaller groups. Each national political party has many branch organizations in counties and cities. Most of the work of the party is done by the men and women in these local groups. Everywhere the party worker is trying to

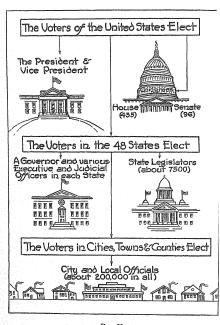


Figure 30
The Voters Elect Many Representatives

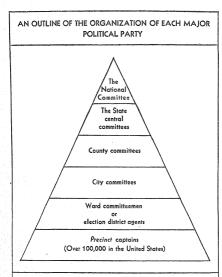
get the voter to vote for his party's candidates. Thousands of citizens offer themselves willingly for this sort of work just before elections, while others work for their parties at all times. You can see the outline of the party organization in Figure 31.

The political party has come to be a very real part of the organization of our government. No mention is made of political parties in the Constitution of the United States. These parties come into existence and do work just as other groups do. They get their authority from the citizens who join them and they delegate authority to party leaders. They serve large groups of citizens who wish to use the party as a good way to make their own objectives known and to put them into effect. They have their organization through which to carry on their work. They keep in close contact with groups of voters in order to win as many votes as possible for their own candidates. They keep in close touch with the officials whom they have elected to office, in order to know whether to try to reelect the same officials or to find others who will do the work better. They do all of these things in terms of the principles and standards which are accepted by the members of the party. A political party can be no better than its members, for the members set the standards for the whole group. If you wish to learn other objectives of a political party, study Figure 32.

THINGS TO DO

Answer each question in from one to five words:

- 1. What is the exective head of our Government called?
- 2. How large a part of the population of our Nation is qualified to vote ?
- 3. What group name do we give to the whole body of qualified voters $\widehat{\mathbf{r}}$
 - 4. Can noncitizens vote in your State?
- 5. How old do people have to be before they can vote in the United States?



MANY VOTERS IN THE UNITED STATES JOIN GROUPS
KNOWN AS POLITICAL PARTIES IN ORDER TO
CHOOSE THEIR REPRESENTATIVES

Figure 31
The Organization of Each Major Political Party

WAYS IN WHICH OUR POLITICAL PARTIES SERVE THE PEOPLE

t

POLITICAL PARTIES ARE USEFUL INSOFAR AS THEY

- Provide us with organizations through which large groups of citizens
 can take an active part in the government and can express
 their opinions and wishes in a way which will influence public
 officials.
- Keep the people interested in problems of city, State, and National government, so that we may really have a government "by the people."
- Spread truthful information about how the government operates and about how it can be improved.
- Put into definite form certain important questions affecting the welfare of the people, by writing them into their programs and platforms.
- 5. Provide good leadership for our government by nominating candidates who are worthy to represent the people. Each year voters in this country elect 200,000 officials, ranging in importance from the President of the United States to the constable of a village. Most of these are nominated by political parties.
- Promote good government by insisting that officials who have been nominated through the party's efforts shall serve the people well. This is also a good way to get the party's candidates reelected.
- Exert a strong influence on officials who have been put into office by the votes of the opposing party, thus forcing them by public opinion to give good service.

- What do you call a meeting brought together to nominate persons for office?
- 7. Are the candidates for the offices of President and Vice President of the United States nominated by petition or at conventions?
- 8. Does the Constitution of the United States provide for our political parties?

Some more words which the student should understand:

alderman-a law-making or rule-making officer representing the people of a city.

attention—thought and study applied to something.

ballot-an official paper given to a voter on which he may mark his vote.

campaign-a struggle between political parties before an elec-

constable-a law-enforcing officer of a town or township.

critics-persons who express their judgment about people or things (usually an unfavorable judgment).

electorate—the entire group of qualified voters.

empress-make clear by act or word. favor-take sides with, try to help.

indifferent-not caring seriously.

inhabit-live in.

institutions-anything built up solidly for a definite purpose. major-larger.

mayor-head official of a city government.

minors-persons less than 21 years old. nominees-persons who are named as candidates.

performances-things done.

"platform"-American word for the principles of a political party.

polling place-place where citizens vote on election day.

precinct-a small division of a city or county made for governmental purposes. primary election-special election at which each political party

nominates its candidates for office by its own votes.

qualified voter-a voter who meets the requirements of the law.

CHAPTER 13

How the People Form Their Opinions Before Voting

"Only enlightened public opinion, based on accurate information and full and free discussion of facts and issues, can give to our Nation real and adequate security."

-James Monroe

In our last chapter we discussed how the people can make known their wishes by voting. However, the voter does not do his whole duty as a citizen by voting for the candidates offered to him by the political parties. Every citizen should keep himself well informed so that he can help in the choice of able and honest representatives. He should keep up his interest in public officials after they are elected so that he will know whether they are worthy of holding office and of being reelected. Let us consider for a few moments how the voter forms his opinions about his government and its officials.

VOTERS SHOULD HAVE AS MUCH INFORMATION AS POSSIBLE

The United States is a democracy in which the wishes of the people must guide the government in deciding how it will act. Every voter should know what the government is doing for him and his community. If a large number of our voters are ignorant or indifferent, our democracy will be a failure. If our voters are well informed and vote with good common sense, our Government will serve the people well.

More and more as years go by, we expect our Government to help us with our hardest problems. Therefore we should always keep trying to elect able and wide-awake representatives. After the elections are over and the officials are in office, the people should be interested in watching how their representatives are doing their work. Are the legislators making laws which are really needed? Are other officials really enforcing the laws? Are all criminals who violate the laws being brought to trial and punished? Are the needs of the people getting the attention which they deserve? These and many other questions should be of interest to our citizens.

HOW CAN THE VOTER KEEP HIMSELF WELL INFORMED?

All voters should be alert and independent enough to read and think for themselves. The problems of government are changing all the time, and we are constantly being asked to vote for new candidates and, indirectly, for or against new plans which groups of citizens tell us will be helpful to our community or to the whole people. How can we figure out wisely what candidates have the right answers, as far as the welfare of our groups or of the United States is concerned?

Much of our information must come from newspapers, magazines, and the radio. It is a wise thing for all of us to keep up our reading about public questions and government affairs and to listen to all sorts of conversations, tectures, and radio talks. A great many writers and lecturers are friendly and patriotic and really want to help us, even though some of them are trying to make us think as they do, instead of just giving us information that will guide us in thinking for ourselves. Some of the advice which we receive we recognize right away as being for our own good and for the good of our neighbors, as, for example, when a police radio broadcast explains to us why we should obey the traffic rules.

HEARING BOTH SIDES

But we often recognize other information as coming from persons who wish only to help themselves along by getting us to support their selfish plans. We read many articles which we immediately know are intended to make us dislike certain officials or groups of officials, while other articles are intended to "build up" some new candidate who is not really worthy of our support. We would be very foolish to believe all we read or hear, especially when the writer or speaker is trying to persuade us to think what he thinks, instead of giving us both sides of the question for our thoughtful consideration. We should always try to hear, discuss, and read "the other side of the story" before we form our opinions. We should read newspapers and listen to radio speeches on both sides, and then compare the information we have thus received with the facts which we know already and with our own experience. The most important thing is to hear both sides and to measure their arguments by what we have actually learned in our own lives.

We can get much information in our homes and in the other groups to which we belong. We must never think of education as something which ends when we reach the age of leaving school but must always remember that our education continues throughout our lives-in our homes, in our religious groups, in our work groups, in discussion groups, and in many of our other contacts. In our homes, for instance, we often find members of the family helping to educate each other without thinking much about it. When they come home from work, they often discuss the different opinions and arguments which they have heard or in which they have taken part during the day. By their discussions they help to explain more than one side of a question. Often they talk about good books which they have read and encourage other members of the family to read them too.

DISCUSSION GROUPS

Everywhere in our country there are small and large groups of people who assemble to discuss questions. They are using their constitutional right to assemble peaceably and to speak freely. Sometimes a social group will discuss public questions of importance when it meets at a neighbor's house for dinner—usually local questions of life and work in its own community. Sometimes a group of farmers gets together to talk about the problems of the farm.

Sometimes groups of housewives gather to talk about problems of the home and children and the price of household supplies. In all these groups people are talking, listening, reading, exchanging information, and forming opinions.

Some of our groups are more formal than others. The discussion groups which we have just described are very informal and are found wherever a few people get together to talk things over. But throughout this country there are groups that do not simply meet at a dinner or a luncheon or around a fire in the evening. They are organized into formal units, meet together regularly at agreed times and places, and have programs of lectures and discussions to help their members make up their minds about public questions. It is said that in New York City alone there are about 10,000 such groups.

Many times these formal groups give their members spoken or written information that tells only one side of the story. Such information is worth having only if we

learn the other side of the story as well.

Look at Figure 33, which shows in picture form some of the influences often exerted on a citizen as he tries to form an honest opinion on a government question. This may suggest to you that you are going to have a very interesting time in making your preparations to vote sensibly. You will find this true. Making up your own mind independently about public questions is one of the greatest privileges of a democracy.

NEED OF INDEPENDENT MIND

On the other hand, you must remember that-

- 1. The newspapers often disagree about men and policies.
 - 2. Books may be written on both sides of any question.
- 3. Magazines very often publish articles which contradict one another.
- 4. Each political party must stake its success on its own point of view.

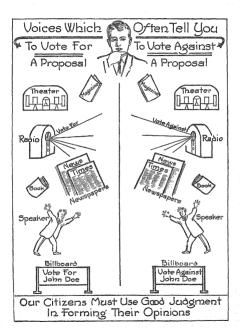


Figure 33
Our Citizens Must Use Good Judgment in Forming Their Opinions

- 5. Friends whom you admire sometimes see public questions differently than you do.
- 6. Members of your own family may hold opinions which you cannot accept.
 - 7. Lecturers may present opposing views.
- 8. News reels may influence your judgment by the way they show events which actually happened.
- 9. Posters and billboards may play up some new thought on either side of a question.
- 10. Different groups to which you belong may totally disagree with one another.

Somehow out of all this information you must get enough good advice to help you form sensible opinions. Such opinions are of the highest importance in a democracy, for they guide the people and the people guide the government.

SOMETIMES VOTERS TAKE A DIRECT PART IN LAW MAKING

In some States the voters take a direct part in making laws. Some of the States have provided ways by which the people themselves can propose State laws. In those States permission is given by law to any large enough group of voters to sign a petition asking for a desired law. and so to begin the process of lawmaking without waiting for action by their representatives in the State legislature. Then if enough names are signed to the petition, the qualified voters of the State must be given a chance at an election to vote for or against the proposal. If more than half the votes at the election are favorable to the proposed law, it goes into effect. If a majority of the voters vote against it, it is defeated. By this plan, known as the initiative, the people (who have the final authority) are actually using part of that authority to make their own laws, instead of delegating all of it to their representatives. They are expressing their wishes directly.

Certainly they will need plenty of information about the proposed law before they can vote wisely for or against it. If the people of a State which has an initiative law are not alert and ready to give such proposals thorough study and to vote upon them intelligently, the "rule of the majority" may be used by a smaller number of citizens to initiate and pass unwise laws. The initiative passes back to the people part of the authority usually delegated to representatives, but it also puts on them a great responsibility not to neglect that authority.

Many States make use of another plan by which the people may have a direct part in lawmaking. This is known as the referendum, and is much more commonly used than the initiative. The referendum plan provides that a law which has been passed by the State legislature may be referred back to the voters of the State either at their next regular election or at a special election, so that they may vote whether to accept or reject it. That law does not go into effect unless it gets a favorable vote of the people. Nearly half of the States give their citizens this power of referendum in some form. Perhaps your own State does. Sometimes a question, instead of a law, may be referred to the people. For example, the people of a city may be asked to vote whether they want a new street car or bus system, or a new boulevard cut through a crowded district, or whether the government shall borrow money to do certain things. In such cases the people are again expressing their wishes directly.

In some States the voters may recall (remove from office) an official before his term of office ends. Under this plan, if a large enough number of voters sign a petition, the question of the removal of the official must be voted on. If he loses, he is said to be "recalled." The new official to take his place may be chosen at the same time or voted for later at an election. The details of this plan are different in different cities and States.

A SERIOUS RESPONSIBILITY

Such direct decisions on important questions put upon the voter a serious responsibility. In the initiative, the referendum and the recall the citizen does not delegate his authority to someone whom he regards as more wise and more experienced than himself. He uses his final authority directly himself. For small government groups this may work well, just as the New England "town meeting," at which everybody in the town acts as his own lawmaking representative, works well as long as the population is small. Certainly it is a democratic process of government.

In any case it is very important that the citizen keep himself or herself well informed about public questions and public officials.

THINGS TO DO

You be the judge:

Case 1. Mr. X lives in a city which has a law permitting the recall of city officials. He finds that the mayor of his city is being threatened with a possible recall. He does not know why, but decides that the easiest thing for him to do is to vote as his neighbor tells him. He then forgets all about it until voting time when he and his neighbor east their votes against the mayor.

Do you think Mr. X has the right idea about this important question? What would you have done if you had been in his place?

Case 2. Three new citizens, Mr. X, Mr. Y, and Mr. Z, are discussing their right to vote for officials in the coming election. Mr. X says that if the voters of the county, city, State, and Nation do not vote, they are not helping to give us a government "by the people." He thinks that if they do not vote they are not worthy of their citizenship and should be made to pay a fine, as if they were lawbreakers.

Mr. Y does not agree. He says that it really does not make any difference whether a citizen votes or not, since a single vote cannot possibly change the result.

Mr. Z argues that it makes little difference for whom he votes, so he may as well vote for an old friend who is a nice fellow but stunid.

Do you agree with any one of these men? Discuss their points of view and see what your group thinks about them.

CASE 3. Suppose that Mr. A. Mr. B. and Mr. C are candidates for the office of mayor of your city. You find that each one has certain qualities which you like. Study the qualities of each as given below and decide for which one von would vote.

| Mr. A | Mr. B |
|------------------------|-----------------|
| High-school education. | Eighth-grade ed |
| Honest. | Honest. |
| Bad judgment. | Good judgment. |

Generous.

Friendly.

Fair public speaker.

neation. Thrifty. Unsympathetic. Poor public speaker.

College education Dishonest. Excellent judgment. Generous. Very popular. Good public speaker.

Other things to discuss in your study grown:

- 1. Discuss the meaning of the quotation printed at the beginning of this chapter.
- 2. Perhaps the law of your own State makes provision for the initiative, referendum, or recall. Ask your study group leader to help you find out about this.
- 3. If your State has laws for the initiative, can you think of any law which you would like to initiate by petition ?
- 4. It is suggested that your group elect or appoint a committee to draw up a petition requesting some desirable law. Ask the committee to present their petition to the study group. When the group has discussed the petition. find out how many members are willing to sign it. Perhaps some members of the study group can show why the petition should not be signed.

Some more words which the student should understand:

accurate-correct, true.

adequate-fully equal to any need.

billboards-large signboards.

boulevard-a fine city avenue or broad street.

contradict-deny the truth of another person's statements. conversations-informal exchange of thoughts through spoken words.

encourage-give someone the courage or desire to do something. enlightened-well informed.

enerted—used forcefully.

ignorant-untaught, lacking in knowledge.

initiate-make a beginning, set things going, introduca.

initiative—legal right reserved by the voters of some States to start the lawmaking process themselves, without waiting for their representatives to act first.

issues—questions up for decision on which there are different opinions.

lectures-speeches on chosen subjects.

legislators-members of lawmaking groups.

point of view—an argument seriously presented in a public discussion.

posters—printed statements or pictures intended to be fastened in public places.

recall—take away the right to hold office.

referendum—legal right reserved by the voters of some States to have the last word on acts of the legislature and other public questions by voting directly on them.

reject-refuse to accept.

security—safety. stupid—having a very dull mind.

thrifty-eager to save money or things of value,

violate-break.

CHAPTER 14

The Objectives of Our City Governments

"More than half the people in the United States live in cities. Their needs must be served."

*

In the last chapter you learned how important it is that our citizens should know clearly what is going on in the various government groups of which they are members. You learned that the wishes and opinions of citizens do much to decide the course of the government; for the people must give the government its authority to act. But what does the government do? What are its duties? How does it serve our needs? What are its objectives? In this chapter we shall discuss the objectives and purposes of a city government.

*

OUR GOVERNMENT UNITS SERVE US EVERY DAY

Some of our government groups touch our lives very often. The streets and bridges which we cross in going to our homes or businesses are provided by the government. The roads on which we travel to visit friends in nearby towns are built by the government. The streetcar or bus lines on which we ride are regulated by the government. The water which the people of cities and towns drink is in most cases supplied by their local government and in most cases is tested carefully enough by government experts to make people feel safe in drinking it.

Many times a day we are being protected by the services of one or the other of our government units.

THE GENERAL OBJECTIVES OF CITY GOVERNMENTS

When we study the general purpose or objective of our city governments, we find that it is to provide the people with safe and helpful living conditions in the city. You learned earlier that in a charter granted by the State each city group is given authority to set up a local government. The fact that the State gives to the city such a charter clearly shows that the State government is interested in promoting the same objective.

City problems are often difficult. Here, in one small area, we find a large number of people. Some of them have come from the country to get work in the city. Others have lived in the city all their lives. Some settle in the city when they arrive from foreign lands. Still others move from one city to another in search of better conditions. Some of these people are wealthy. Others are very poor. Some have good jobs. Others have none. Some are good citizens. Others are criminals. All these people together make up the city population.

Today our two largest cities, New York and Chicago, have a combined population of more than 10 millions. Other millions live in the many other large and small cities of this country. But wherever they are, the people who are grouped in one city call upon the city government to provide for many of their needs, so that they can live together in peace and safety. Let us examine this general objective and see what our cities are expected to do for their people.

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WE EXPECT THE CITY GOVERNMENT TO GUARD THE HEALTH OF THE PEOPLE

If the people living in our cities are to feel safe, they must live in healthful neighborhoods. One of the most important things in city life—without which no city can hope to live and grow—is good water and plenty of it. It is such a usual thing for all of us to drink water, to cook with water, to wash with water, to use water in all sorts of work, that we come to expect good water without asking where it comes from. A city cannot exist without a plentiful supply of fresh water. This means that the city must provide experts to examine the water supply to make

certain that it is pure and safe to drink. It may have to build great waterworks to pump the water or to filter and purify it. The city must provide enough water for everybody and at as low a cost as possible, for millions of gallons will be needed for drinking, cooking, and washing purposes and to supply factories. Most cities own pumping stations and networks of pipes under their streets, and some have to bring their water supply in large pipes from lakes and rivers many miles away.

The city employs experts to examine all sorts of food which, if not properly prepared for sale, may become spoiled and harmful. Other experts inspect dairy farms to make sure that the milk offered for sale is pure. Others examine factories, markets, restaurants, and bakeries to see that they maintain healthful conditions.

Most cities have public hospitals and clinics which examine school children as to their general health and as to their teeth, and employ special nurses in the schools to watch over the health of the children. These hospitals and clinics also offer free services to all persons who are too poor to pay for medical care.

To guard the health of the people, nearly every city government has a department of health. One of the most important duties of the officers of a city health department is to prevent the spread of contagious diseases. They must quarantine (close off from the public) all places where disease has broken out, give special medical treatment to persons to prevent them from catching diseases. and disinfect places where contagious diseases are likely to occur. Furthermore, all the doctors in the city are required by law to report to the department of health all cases of contagious diseases. Health officials also must keep a record of births and deaths in the city and must study the causes of diseases and deaths. Sometimes, by finding out the cause of a death, the doctors are able to prevent a disease from spreading,

The city government must also pay careful attention to the removal of trash, garbage, and other waste material. If this is not done, the city will be unclean and diseases will break out. It must build sewers and keep them in repair and must provide proper drainage for storm water. Modern health experts have learned that large numbers of people cannot live close together in a city and keep healthy unless they have good drainage and good sewers. In order to keep the city clean, quiet, and healthful, a good city government will also do all that it can to prevent unnecessary dust, noises, and smoke.

WE EXPECT THE CITY GOVERNMENT TO GIVE US GOOD STREETS

A special department of the city government is usually in charge of building and repairing streets. If it is well managed, it will plan and build bridges and underpasses where they are needed to make travel easier and safer. It will keep the streets clean and will forbid householders and storekeeper to throw trash or rubbish and garbage into them. It will also keep the streets well lighted and properly marked.

WE EXPECT THE CITY GOVERNMENT TO MAINTAIN PEACE AND ORDER

One of the most important departments of our city government is the police department. It helps to keep the city an orderly place by arresting lawbreakers and those who disturb the peace. For purposes of keeping order the department will usually divide the city into districts or precincts and will assign a certain number of policemen to each district so that each policeman may have special knowledge of the area for which he is responsible. Other policemen regulate street traffic in the city and help to prevent accidents. The police force also takes care of lost children and restores them to their homes.

Policemen must do many kinds of work and therefore must have high qualifications. They must take physical tests to prove that they are strong and quick and have good eyesight and hearing. They must also take examinations to prove that they know the laws which they are employed to enforce. The policeman must prove himself a good friend to everyone living in the city, for citizens have a right to call on him to help them in many ways.

WE EXPECT THE CITY COVERNMENT TO PREVENT AND FIGHT FIRES

Most cities have a recular force of firemen to fight fires To prevent fires they must also have strict building requlations: these usually provide for the inspection of building plans and for the issuance of building permits only after the plans have been approved by a building department of the city government. Sometimes the building regulations state what kind of materials must be used. because some materials catch fire more easily than others. Representatives of the fire department or the building department usually check up carefully on the electric wiring in houses and places of business. They examine furnaces, chimneys, and fire escapes, and check up on the storage of gasoline, explosives, and motion-picture films. They inspect schools, theaters, and other buildings where large numbers of persons come together. Sometimes too. firemen are sent to the schools to teach fire prevention and conduct fire drills.

WE EXPECT THE CITY GOVERNMENT TO MAINTAIN SCHOOLS FOR

Every city must plan for the education of its citizens. This not only requires the building and maintaining of grade schools, but of high schools and even of schools for grown-ups. Often the school system starts classes in vocational training (special teaching to prepare people for various kinds of jobs) and classes for the deaf and the crippled and for those who cannot yet speak the English language. Perhaps your own city offers its people other kinds of education not listed here. City governments also give the people other aids to education by maintaining libraries, public lecture halls, and training schools for teachers.

WE EXPECT THE CITY GOVERNMENT TO PROVIDE FOR THE SICK AND NEEDY

It is generally agreed that the community must take care of those sick, aged, or helpless persons who cannot take care of themselves. It must provide for the care of the insane, the feeble-minded, the orphans, and the poverty-stricken. It must keep a watchful eye on juvenile delinquents—boys and girls who are beginning to develop wrong habits—to prevent them from becoming criminals.

WE EXPECT THE CITY GOVERNMENT TO PLAN FOR YEARS TO COME

Most of our older cities have grown without any careful plan for the future. Today we are learning that a wellthought-out plan is a fine thing for the welfare of any city and for the health and comfort of its citizens. There is a real need in every city for a group of people who will make plans for the growth of the city many years in advance. Such a planning department can also arrange for immediate improvements. It can consider new and better ways of obtaining a water supply, disposing of sewage, beautifying the city, and improving the streets. It may plan for new public buildings or for a new airport. It may plan for better location of railroad tracks. It sometimes divides the city into zones for the purpose of keeping the factories and business buildings out of home districts. Sometimes the zoning of a city makes it necessary for citizens to give up the full right over their own property, for the benefit of all the people of the city. For example, a person owning a home in a residential section will sometimes not be permitted to rent it as a store or factory, because a store or a factory in a district of homes will often spoil the whole neighborhood.

You will want to find out whether your city has a planning or a zoning commission.

WE EXPECT THE CITY GOVERNMENT TO PROVIDE PLACES FOR PLAY

The people of a large city are likely to become unhappy and unhealthy citizens if they live among narrow streets and crowded blocks without any chance to get pleasure from wholesome exercise in the fresh air or to relax and have a good time among their friends after work hours. So modern cities very often provide parks, gardens, and playgrounds for their people. They often have community swimming pools, carefully inspected and kept clean. They often provide public libraries, museums and art galleries. Many modern cities have public golf courses and community centers. These things all help to make a city a happier and healthier place to live in. Your group will want to discuss the play places of your own city, if it has any; or, if it has not, why not?

WE EXPECT THE CITY GOVERNMENT TO REGULATE PUBLIC UTILITIES

In some cities there are "public utility" companies which supply gas, electricity, telephone service, and street-car or bus service for private profit. The city must take the responsibility of regulating the private companies to make sure that the people are fairly treated. Other cities own and operate their own public utilities. It will be interesting to learn to which group your city belongs.

SUMMARY

A city government can only fulfill its true objective by doing services for its people. Naturally, the city needs an able and active government organization for these purposes. In our next chapter we shall study the organization of the city government itself, in order to see how all this work is done.

THINGS TO DO

Questions to discuss in your study group:

- 1. What are some of the things which any person living in a city can do to prevent dangerous fire?
- 2. Why is it important for the city health officers to fight contagious diseases? Is it anybody else's business if you catch a contagious disease?

3. What does your own city do to prevent contagious diseases?

You be the judge:

Case 1. Mrs. Jones, who lives in a city apartment, has a small daughter very ill with searlet fever. One morning a neighbor calls and learns of the child's illness. She asks Mrs. Jones to call a doctor at once, because of the danger of contagion in the building. Mrs. Jones refuses, saying she does not want her family to be quarantined. She asks her neighbor to say nothing about the case. What do you think the neighbor should do?

Suggested field trips:

- 1. If you live in a city, your study group, or a committee appointed from it, should learn how garbage, trash, and other waste is treated. Visit the garbage-disposal plant.
 - a. Learn how the garbage is collected.
 - b. Learn how it is disposed of or destroyed.
 - c. What purpose does the garbage-disposal plant serve? Do you think it actually helps the families in your neighborhood?
- 2. If all your study group cannot visit the city waterworks, elect a committee to do so.
 - a. What purpose does the waterworks serve? How does it help the families living in the city area?
 b. How is the water purified?
 - c. Where does the city get its supply of water?
- 3. Have you ever thought about the museums, libraries, art galleries, and other educational centers in your city? Perhaps your leader can arrange for you to take a field trip to some of these places. When you return discuss the purposes of these interesting places. In what ways was the trip helpful to you?
 - 4. Other places you might visit and discuss:
 - a. One or more of the large schools or universities.

- b. The department of your city government which supervises the cleaning and repairing of streets and roads.
- c. The planning department of your city government.

Some more words which the student should understand:

art galleries—buildings or rooms in which paintings, statues, and other works of art are shown.

community centers—buildings, rooms, or open spaces where the people of the community can meet for community business or pleasure.

contagious—likely to spread easily from one person to another.

disinfect—purify or make free from germs or contagion.

disposing-getting rid of.

drainage-system for carrying away waste water.

experts—persons who are widely experienced or thoroughly informed about some particular thing.

explosives—substances, such as gun powder or dynamite, which cause a violent bursting.

feeble-minded-persons whose minds are weak.

filter—strain through something which will remove impurities.
gallons—liquid measures, each containing 4 quarts.

garbage-disposal plant—a place where household refuse is gotten rid of.

issuance-act of giving something out officially.

juvenile delinquents—children who do not obey the law.

museums—places where collections of curiosities or objects of interest or works of art are kept to be seen.

physical-relating to the human body.

"public utilities"—services furnished for public use, such as gas, electricity, telephone service, or bus and streetcar service.

quarantine—keep persons or places separated because of the danger of spreading disease.

residential—used for homes.

sewers—pipes or other drains for carrying off water, sewage or other waste.

vocational training—training for different kinds of jobs,

waterworks—a system by which water is furnished in large quantities, usually to a town or city.

sones—areas, divisions of a city in which the kinds and uses of buildings are strictly limited.



CHAPTER 15

How Our City Governments Are Organized and Operated

"Because the services of our modern city affect the citizen's welfare every day, it is important that the city government be well organized and operated."

*

In the last chapter you studied the objectives of the city government. You learned that it does a great many servies for its people, who depend upon it to guard their health, lives, and property. We know that these servies are important; but how are they to be carried out? How is the city government organized to do its work?

HOW CITY GOVERNMENTS DIFFER FROM ONE ANOTHER

The cities of the United States have a number of different forms of government organization. However, there is almost always some kind of a central group or council of chosen representatives to direct the city's business, and a mayor or manager to act as the head of the organization. Then there are the heads of the important departments among which the work is divided, and there are a large number of employees who work under their leadership.

There are three general plans of city government. In some cities the voters elect a chief officer known as a mayor and a lawmaking group called a council, the members of which are usually called aldermen or councilmen and are elected from city districts called wards; in some cities, however, the voters of the whole city elect all of the aldermen. In other cities the voters elect officials to form a government group called a commission. In still other cities the voters elect a small group of representatives to make the city laws, but these are also given the special duty of choosing a city manager to act as the executive

head of the city's government. These three forms of city government are usually spoken of as (1) the mayor-council plan, (2) the commission form of government, and (3) the city-manager plan. Many cities have worked out forms of organization which combine parts of these three general plans.

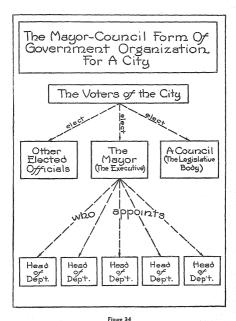
We cannot say that any special form of city government is "the best." Any form of organization is good which works effectively for the good of the people and in which

the people have the "last word" at the elections.

THE MAYOR-COUNCIL PLAN

Until about 40 years ago the mayor-council plan of organization was used in almost all American cities. It is the oldest form of city government in the United States. In many ways it is like our National and State organizations. You can see in Figure 34 that in this form of organization the mayor is the chief executive officer of the city. He is elected by the people and is often given great power. He usually appoints the heads of the departments of the city government and a large number of lower officers, although the city council sometimes has the power to confirm or reject the more important of these appointments. The mayor may sign or veto city ordinances. He is responsible for putting the ordinances into effect and has many officials under him to help him do so. Sometimes he is required to prepare a budget, which is his recommendation to the council as to how the money of the city shall be collected and spent.

From your study of the objectives of the city government you know that there is need for departments of public health, police, fire protection, education, etc. All of these departments do services for the people. Hundreds of persons are employed in these departments and in other departments which enforce the city's building regulations, pave and clean its streets, make its plans about raising and spending money, conduct its lawsuits, and do many other necessary things. Under the mayor-council



The Mayor-Council Form of City Government Organization

plan the heads of all these departments have their authority delegated to them either by the mayor or the city council, whose own authority is delegated by the people.

The council is the legislative group in this form of city government. The council passes the city laws, which are called ordinances, but it does not have the right to pass ordinances that violate the city charter, the National or State laws, or the National or State Constitutions.

In this plan the mayor and the council share the authority delegated by the people. The council makes the laws, but the mayor must enforce them through the police and other executive officers. The council has the power to decide the tax rate for the people. With the advice of the mayor, it decides how much money is to be spent by each of the city departments and the purposes for which it is to be used.

THE COMMISSION FORM OF CITY GOVERNMENT ORGANIZATION

A commission form of city government is much newer than the mayor-council plan. In this kind of city organization the voters elect three or more commissioners to represent them. These commissioners are usually elected from the whole city, rather than from districts or wards. They are given both the law-making and the law-enforcing powers of the city government. They decide on the tax rate for the city and plan how the city's money is to be spent. They grant permits to various companies whose work must be inspected (watched) by the city government. One of the commissioners is chosen to preside as chairman and is usually called the mayor, although in most cases he does not have more power than the other commissioners.

You can see in Figure 35 that the work of the city is divided into several departments. It usually relates to public safety, public improvements, finance, parks, and public property. Each commissioner supervises the work of one or more of the departments and is responsible for it.

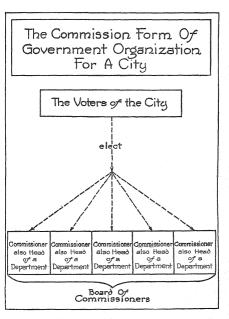


Figure 35
The Commission Form of City Government Organization

THE CITY-MANAGER PLAN OF GOVERNMENT ORGANIZATION

The city-manager plan was first used in Staunton, Va., in 1908. Since then many cities have adopted it. In this plan the people elect a small group or council to make city ordinances and to decide general matters of planning. They give to the council an important duty, which is to elect as the head of the city organization a manager who is especially well qualified by experience and training for that kind of work. The people authorize the council to pick the best man they can get whether he lives in their own city or not. This city manager appoints the heads of departments and some of the other officers.

The manager is responsible for the enforcement of the ordinances passed by the council. He reports to the council on the needs of the city and suggests plans as to how the city's money shall be spent and how improvements shall be made. In most cases he holds office as long as the council is pleased with his work.

The people retain control over their city government because their council can dismiss the manager at any time. Furthermore, the members of the council are, in some cities, subject to recall by the voters. And, of course, they can be voted out of office at the next regular election if the people are not satisfied with them. (Study Figure 36.)

ALL CITIES HAVE A SYSTEM OF COURTS

Every city has some kinds of courts. Sometimes the judges of these courts are elected by the voters of the city, but sometimes they are appointed by the city council or commission, by the governor of the State or by some other person or group to whom authority is delegated by the people for that purpose.

WHAT KIND OF LAWS DOES A CITY MAKE?

There are many kinds of city ordinances. Some of them are about the organization of the city government; others are about the raising and spending of money, the planning

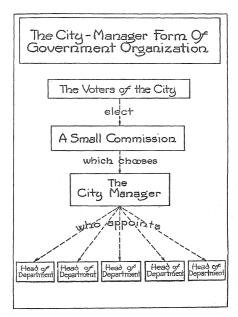


Figure 36

The City-Manager Form of City Government Organization

and upkeep of public buildings, parks, and city streets, and still others are about such matters as water supply, drainage, and sewage. Many deal with the health, safety, and lives of the people. Other ordinances give permits to certain kinds of private businesses which serve the people.

We have learned that sometimes private companies supply the city with gas, electric lights, telephones, streetcars, and busses. Each of these companies is required to get from the city government an operating permit called a franchise, which states its right to do business and is its authority to act. For example, if a streetcar or bus company wishes to run a new line through a city, it must get a franchise to do so from the city government.

THE TEST OF A CITY GOVERNMENT

No matter what the form of organization of a city government may be, the important thing is whether or not it reaches its objectives and gives the people what they need. The people of the city should be interested in knowing how their officials operate the government, in keeping themselves well informed, and in making known to the officials their real needs and wishes. They should use their final authority and speak their "last word" by voting intelligently and by putting and keeping honest and able men and women in public office.

All of us should study our city governments, having in mind the following questions:

- 1. What is the general objective of the city government?
- 2. What are the objectives of the principal departments?
- 3. How is the government organized to reach these objectives?
- 4. Are the several departments and other parts of the government doing their work well and at a reasonable cost to the taxpayers?

PROBLEMS OF MY CITY

Think about the general conditions of your own city. Does it have good lights, good streets, clean alleys, and attractive parks? Does it have a traffic problem and are there enough policemen to enforce the laws and prevent accidents? Try to complete this chart.

SOME PROBLEMS OF MY CITY ARE:

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Figure 37
Work Project: Problems of My City

THINGS TO DO

| Select | the | word | or | words | which | will | finish | each | of | the | follow | inį |
|--------|-------|-------|-----|---------|-------|------|--------|------|----|-----|--------|-----|
| | state | ement | s c | orrectl | u: | | | | | | | |

| 1. | Three forms of city government organization are the |
|----|---|
| | a b |
| | C |
| 2. | The oldest form of city government organization is |
| he | |
| 3. | City laws are called |

- 4. The permit which the city may give to a private company to carry on a public service is called a ______.
- 5. In the mayor-council plan of city government the chief executive officer is called the ______.
- 6. The form of city government in which an elected group of representatives makes the city laws and each member of it acts as the head of an operating department is called a ________
- 7. In the mayor-council plan of city government the legislative body is generally called the
- In the city-manager plan of government the person responsible for the business management of the city government is called the ______.

Questions about your city government (for students who live in cities):

- 1. What form of city government organization do you have?
 - 2. What important officials do the people elect?
- 3. For how long a term does the mayor or manager of your city serve?
- 4. What departments are there in your city government organization? What are the chief objectives of each?

Some more words which the student should understand:

affect-act upon or influence.

budget—a list showing money expected to be collected and money planned to be spent during a certain period.

council—a group of persons who meet together for discussion.
comployees—persons employed to do work.

finance-the system by which money is raised and spent.

franchise—a special right or privilege granted by a government to some definite person or group.

recommendation—act of asking for favorable consideration,

supervises—has duty of overseeing.

tax rate—amount of tax to be paid, as measured by the value of

the property taxed. veto-refuse to approve.



CHAPTER 16

The Objectives and Organization of Our Other Local Governments

"No citizen can afford to be indifferent to his government. Every hour he is being affected by its services and regulations."

*

In our last two chapters we discussed city governments in the United States. You learned about their objectives and services and how they organize and operate to reach these objectives and give these services. Now we shall study other local governments—the township, town, or village, and the larger and more important unit known as the county. We shall study their objectives and see how they serve many of our needs; we shall also talk about their organizations and the various officials who do the work required for reaching their objectives.

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WHY SO MANY LOCAL GOVERNMENT UNITS HAVE GROWN UP

In the early days, when our people lived farther apart and there were not so many of them in this country, the services which are now done by our government units were carried on by single persons and small groups. In the days of the 13 Colonies, for example, there were very few or no police in the cities. The citizens watched and guarded their own homes and properties. The city governments provided neither street lights nor street cleaners. The people provided for themselves whatever they felt they needed.

Today, even in our small towns, we call on our government units to do hundreds of services for us. We prefer to pay taxes for these services rather than to do the services ourselves. We want our town government to pro-

vide street lights and good sidewalks. We want it to clean the streets and alleys. We want it to provide enough policemen so that we shall feel protected in our homes. We want a sheriff in our county to arrest criminals who violate the law. We want the government to do whatever else is needed by the citizens so that we may have an orderly place in which to live.

WHAT DO THE TOWNSHIP COVERNMENTS DO?

All our States are divided into districts called counties (or, in Louisiana, parishes), and in many States the counties are divided into districts called townships. In the New England States the town is an important unit of government. At least once a year, in some townships, the voters come together in their town meeting, where they make their own laws about their local roads, bridges, streets, schools, and other such matters. They fix the tax rate and decide how the money shall be spent. They elect officials to enforce the laws. In this form of local government, therefore, "the people" act directly in making their laws. This is an interesting example of direct democracy in which the final lawmaking authority of the people is not delegated to any representatives.

In other States the townships are generally used as election districts, although some of them have a few township officials, such as justices of the peace, constables, and road supervisors.

WHAT THE VILLAGE AND TOWN GOVERNMENTS DO

The village or town is like a small city. When people begin to settle close together and to form communities, they find that they have certain needs in common. They find they must elect their own officials and have their own government to serve these needs. They therefore petition the State government for authority to set up either a village or a town government. If this authority is granted, the community becomes an "incorporated" village or town. The word "incorporated" as here used means that the

community has been delegated authority by the State to have a local government.

The general purpose of a village or town government is to provide for the needs of its people. To carry out this purpose the local government must perform a number of services. Among other things it may—

- 1. Pave and light the streets.
- 2. Provide a water supply.
- 3. Provide police and fire protection.
- 4. Make local health regulations.
- 5. Provide for disposal of sewage, garbage, and other waste.
- Work with the State, county or school district officials to have good schools.
- 7. Decide upon a special tax rate to meet the expenses of these services.

HOW THE VILLAGE AND TOWN ORGANIZE TO DO THEIR WORK

We have learned that our villages and towns have governments to serve the people. Village or town government is usually in the hands of a village or town board or council. Sometimes it is known as a "board of trustees." Members are elected by the people. Some villages and towns elect a president or mayor and give him special powers. Usually there is also a village or town clerk, a health officer and police officers. These officers serve the people of the village or town in their local self-government.

WHAT ARE THE SERVICES PERFORMED BY A COUNTY GOVERNMENT?

County governments in the United States do many services for the people. Here are some of them.

- 1. The county has charge of local elections and helps to conduct State and National elections.
- The county maintains courts in which many important law suits are argued and decided and in which criminals are brought to trial and either acquitted or convicted

and sentenced to punishment; also in which the wills of persons who have died may be filed and all matters concerning estates may be settled.

- 3. The county decides on a tax rate which will bring in the money needed for its own expenses and then collects the taxes. It also collects taxes for the State, city, township, town, or village.
- 4. The county builds and maintains its own schools, although often with State aid.
- 5. The county keeps official records of the births, deaths, and marriages which take place within its borders.
- 6. The county keeps copies of important documents for the people. Such documents include deeds and title papers which show ownership of property, mortgages which prove debts and protect the rights of creditors, judgments of law courts, and wills left by persons who have died, to provide for the division of their estates.
- 7. The county usually cares for its own poor, its povertystricken old people, and its orphans.
- 8. The county helps to prevent diseases and the bad conditions which cause the spread of disease. Many counties maintain county hospitals.
- The county grants some licenses or permits, such as licenses to marry and permits to conduct certain kinds of business.
- 10. The county does its share in building and repairing roads, underpasses and bridges within its boundaries.
- The county usually maintains a courthouse, a poorhouse, and a jail and helps to maintain other public buildings.

HOW OUR COUNTIES ARE ORGANIZED AND OPERATED

In each of our counties there is one town known as the "county seat," which is the headquarters of the county

government. The county officials usually have their offices at the county seat, in a building called the "county building" or "county courthouse."

Usually there is a board of commissioners or board of supervisors in general charge of the county government. Sometimes the county board is very small, but sometimes it is quite large. If the board is small, it usually is made up of members elected by the voters of the entire county. If the board is large, it usually is made up of representatives chosen by the townships in the county.

Certain county officials help the board to do its work. The county officials are sometimes elected by the voters of the county. In some counties they are appointed by the county board, or by the governor of the State, or by the State legislature. Usually their powers and duties are fixed by State law. The following pages describe the duties of the officials usually found in counties throughout the United States.

Every county maintains at least one court of justice and the judicial officers necessary for its operation. It has its own courthouse, although the judges who hold court there sometimes do not live in the county but are members of the State judicial system and hold court in other counties as well. In many States the counties are grouped into judicial districts or *circuits*, each of which has one or more judges. In some States these judges are appointed by the governor or by the legislature. In other States, however, judges are elected by the voters.

PROSECUTING ATTORNEYS-SHERIFFS-CORONERS

The duty of one of the most important county officers, called the prosecuting attorney (or sometimes the district attorney) is to enforce the law against criminals of every kind, from the petty thief to the murderer. When he brings a criminal to trial, he explains the case to the court and asks that the criminal be convicted. He must have witnesses brought in and prove that the prisoner did the crime for which he is being tried. If this important officer

is not brave and honest, he may fail to prosecute the guilty as vigorously as he should. If he is honest and worthy of his office, he will enforce the law without fear or favor and thus help to preserve the good order and peace of his county.

Sometimes the less important cases are tried before a justice of the peace, who is usually an elected officer of the township.

Another important county officer is the sheriff. It is this official's duty to arrest and put in jail those who disturb the peace or otherwise break the law. He is the supervisor of the county jail. He carries out the orders of the judges. He notifies witnesses and jurors when to appear in court. When ordered by the judge, he sells the property of persons who do not pay their taxes.

You learned in chapter 5 that the sheriff has the authority to call on any person in the county to help him arrest a criminal or preserve law and order against any outbreak of lawlessness. When a sheriff cannot keep order in his county even with the aid of such a group of persons (called a "posse"), he may ask the governor for help. In such cases—and particularly in cases of great disturbance—the governor may send the State militia (called the National Guard) into the county to restore order and take over the local police power.

An officer called a coroner is given the duty of investigating sudden or violent deaths which happen under suspicious conditions and of determining the cause of such deaths. He may call together a jury of citizens to help him find out the truth about such cases.

COUNTY TREASURERS, AUDITORS, AND ASSESSORS

An officer called the county treasurer usually receives, guards and pays out the county's money. Sometimes he is aided in his work by assistant collectors. He turns over to State, city, and town officials those parts of the tax money which should go to them and uses the county taxes to pay the costs of the county government. This officer

usually has to put up a bond to protect the county against possible loss of money through the dishonesty or carelessness of anyone in his office. The treasurer is usually elected by the people. You can easily see that he must have a very high standard of honesty.

There is often a county auditor, who has the duty of examining the cash accounts of other county officers.

Some counties have assessors to study and decide upon the valuation of all the taxable property in the county. By setting an "assessed valuation" on property, they help the county board or the county treasurer to determine how much tax money should be collected from different property owners.

Often a special board or group of officials hears appeals from taxpavers who think the assessor has placed his valuation of their property too high. The board may lower the valuation, may agree with the assessor's figure or may raise

it if they believe it has been set too low.

You have already learned that the county keeps important records. A county clerk keeps the records of births, deaths, and marriages in the county. He also keeps copies of deeds and mortgages, and usually copies of all wills which are brought to him to be made official records of the county. These become public records so that any person can find out the truth about property ownership; as such they must be kept accurately and in good condition by the county clerk.

In many counties there is a county superintendent of schools, who supervises teaching, selects teachers, and co-

operates with the State superintendent of schools.

There may be health officers to fight diseases and unhealthful conditions in the county. There may be overseers of the poor to supervise the care of poor people in hospitals, in homes for the aged or on county poor farms. There may be county road commissioners responsible for the building and repair of county roads. And your own county may have still other officers who are not mentioned here.

THE COUNTY-MANAGER PLAN OF ORGANIZATION

In recent years a number of counties have decided to change their government organization. They feel that it is much better to have one man, a single leader, in general charge of the government. The voters in such counties elect a small board of commissioners, who in turn choose an official called a "county manager." The board also chooses an auditor and a prosecuting attorney. Nearly all other officials are selected by the manager. People who favor this plan feel that the manager can find the persons best qualified to work with him. He appoints his sheriff, his finance officers, general welfare officers, and others. Then he is responsible for their work and for the operation of the county government as a whole. You can learn more about this plan by studying Figure 38.

THINGS TO DO

Some questions to discuss in your study group:

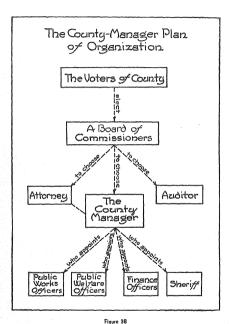
- 1. What are the principal activities of your own township and county governments? Of your village or town? How do they help the people of the communities?
- 2. What needs do you find in your village or county which you would like to see your government serve? Would these services help the families of the neighborhood?
- 3. What are some ways in which the county government cooperates with the State government ?

Your county, village, and township address:

If you live on a farm, you must have a town or village address from which your mail is sent by the Rural Delivery Service. Complete the following sentences:

| mry name is | ~ |
|-----------------------|---|
| My village address is | |
| 36 | |

My rural delivery service address is ______



The County-Manager Plan of Organization

| | Qualifications needed | | | | |
|---------------------|---|---|--|---|-------------|
| OFFICIALS | How chosen? | : | | - | |
| MY COUNTY OFFICIALS | Duties | | | | 1 1 4 |
| | Term of office, and salary | | | | |
| | Name of the official Term of office, and salary | | | | |

Work Project: My County Officials

| My county is |
|---------------------------------------|
| The county seat of my county is |
| My village has a population of about |
| The number of counties in my State is |

Work projects:

1. If you are a qualified voter in your county, you have the right to help elect officials to local offices. Consider carefully the work which each of these officials must be qualified to do. Then try to make a list of the qualities you would hope to find in a candidate who was asking you to vote for him for any one of these offices. Fill out the lists below to show the qualities needed for the offices named.

QUALITIES NEEDED BY GOOD COUNTY OFFICIALS

| Sheriff | Auditor | Treasurer | Prosecuting attorney |
|---------|---------|-----------|-------------------------|
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |

2. Study the public offices, including memberships on boards and commissions, in your county. When you have found out all you can about them, try to complete a chart of them like the one shown in Figure 39. After you have completed this work, discuss it in your study group. What conclusions do you reach as to whether the work of your county government is well organized and well done?

Some more words which the student should understand:

acquitted-found not to be guilty.

appeals—requests that a higher authority will change a decision or correct a mistake of a lower authority.

"assessed valuation"—the money value set on property to deter-

bond—a written agreement to perform some duty honestly or, upon failure, to make good by paying to the person damaged by the failure a sum of money set aside for the purpose.

circuits-districts to be traveled over.

conclusions—final decisions.

convicted-found guilty of a crime.

coroner—officer who inquires into deaths when there is reason to suppose that they are not due to natural causes.

creditors-persons to whom sums of money are owed.

deeds—written papers, prepared according to law, transferring the ownership of real estate to someone else.

estates—properties left by persons who died.

headquarters-a principal place of business.

incorporated—authorized by the legislature to have a local government.

investigating-making careful inquiry about.

justices of the peace—judges of local courts which are only authorized to decide simple cases.

lawlessness-total disregard and disrespect for the law.

mortgages—legal papers providing for the future transfer of property in case some promise, usually to pay back money which is borrowed, is not kept.

overseers-persons in charge.

petty-small or unimportant,

police power—authority given to a law-enforcing agency to do those things necessary to protect the health, safety, peace, and general welfare of a community.

posse—a group of persons in a county whom the sheriff has called together to help arrest criminals or preserve the public peace. prosecuting attorney—a government law officer who argues in

court for the punishment of persons who have broken the law. road supervisors—officers who have charge of roads in a county or district.

sentenced-ordered by a court to undergo punishment.

superintendent of schools—chief officer having authority over the schools in a district.

taxable-property which should be taxed.

title papers—papers showing ownership of land and buildings. trustees—persons who are trusted by others to represent them in business matters.

underpasses—passages underneath, as where a road is built under a railroad bridge, valuation—act of deciding the value or worth.
wills—legal papers in which persons declare what they wish done with their property after their death.



CHAPTER 17

The Objectives of Our State Governments

"The State and its services enter into the everyday life of the citizen and his family in a thousand and one ways."

*

In the last chapter we studied the objectives of our local governments. You learned how they organize and operate to do their work. Now you are ready to study the objectives of our 48 State governments. Each one of them has come to serve many valuable purposes in the lives of the people who delegate to it its authority.

THE STATE AND ITS CITIZENS

If you look back to chapter 7 you will be reminded how the early Americans organized State governments and then, forming a union for common safety and for better cooperation, adopted a National Constitution and organized a National (usually called a Federal) Government. Town and township and city governments had been organized earliest of all, because they were all that were needed at first in a wild, new country. But let us not forget that, in the days of the Constitutional Convention at Philadelphia, the American people had far more loyalty to their own States than they ever expected or wanted to have to any central government. The States were first in importance-or at least, so the people thought-and were the government units which most closely touched the lives of the people. All laws as to how the people should live and behave and get along together-all laws about personal conduct and the home, and about people's work problems and their property rights-were State laws. Even the Federal Constitution delegated to the National Government only a limited list of powers and reserved all the rest for the States and the people.

So we have today a dual (or double) system of government, with the States (like the cities, as we explained in the last chapter) doing more and more services for the people, as the problems of people's own lives grow more and more complex. You will see in later chapters, however, that the Federal Government, although acting only in matters too broad for single States to handle, still has plenty of important services to perform for the Nation and its people.

EACH STATE HAS A CONSTITUTION TO GUIDE IT

You will remember that the first 13 of these constitutions are older than the Federal Constitution, and that the Fathers of the Constitution were very careful not to take away from the States very many rights which their own constitutions claimed for them. The States are simply required to have a republican form of government and not to adopt laws which contradict or violate the Constitution, laws, and treaties of the United States. When new States are admitted to statehood, as we explained in chapter 9, they have to show their proposed constitutions to the Congress and get its approval. But in general the objectives and services of the State governments are closely related to the life, comfort, and welfare of each individual citizen.

WHAT DO WE FIND IN THE STATE CONSTITUTIONS?

In most State constitutions we will find the following:

- 1. A statement of the objectives of the State government (usually found in a preamble).
- 2. A statement of the rights of the people living in the State (often called a bill of rights).
- 3. A general plan to show how the State government must be organized.

- A statement about crimes and their punishment in the State.
- 5. Rules for the cities, counties, townships, and villages in the State.
- 6. General conditions under which public utilities, business corporations, State banks, *charitable* institutions and other groups may operate in the State.
- A section outlining the ways in which the State constitution may be amended.

Each of the State constitutions provides that the final authority in the State belongs to the people. Each of them tells the objectives of the people in setting up their government. Each outlines an organization for the State government. Each provides for contacts between State government groups and many other groups organized under the authority of the State. And each State constitution announces certain principles and standards which the people of the State have adopted as the foundation of their government.

GENERAL ORIECTIVES OF OUR STATE GOVERNMENTS

State governments have many objectives. The most general objective of each State government is to provide for peace and order in the State, and to cooperate with other units of government for this and other purposes. The State must protect its citizens in the rights which belong to them, but it must prevent anybody from using these rights in a way which will harm others unjustly. For example, a person has a right to own property, but on that property he must not carry on any business which does harm to other people or is forbidden by the State.

SERVICES PERFORMED BY OUR STATE GOVERNMENTS

In order to carry out this general objective, our State governments do many services for the people. What are some of them? Among other things the State helps to—

1. Guard the health of its people.

- Provide for the education of its people.
- 3. Protect the lives and property of its people.
- 4. Improve transportation within its borders.
- Care for those in need of public aid.
- 6. Protect the forests of the State, its mineral deposits, and the soil of its farms.
 - 7. Regulate many kinds of business in the State.
- 8. Improve the living and working conditions of its people in many other ways.

A STATE MAY BELP IN GUARDING THE HEALTH OF ITS PEOPLE

In all of the 48 States we find some group of government officials helping to protect the health of the people. What do they do? Under the authority of the State constitution and State laws, they arrange for the examination of doctors, nurses, druggists, and others who help to fight disease and ill health; then, if they are satisfied, they issue licenses which authorize these applicants to do their work. The State laws usually provide that persons who make and sell medicines, persons who make a business of nursing the sick, and persons who practice any form of curing disease or ill health by medicine or surgery must have official permission to practice their calling in the State.

The States also maintain hospitals for the sick and insane.

State officials carefully examine many kinds of food and drugs to find out whether they are safe for the people to use. Most States forbid the sale of harmful drugs and impure or spoiled food. In many other ways they try to prevent diseases among their people. They require regular health examinations for school children. States also have laws which require that dairy cattle must be inspected and, when found to have tuberculosis or other dangerous diseases, must be destroyed.

A STATE MAY PROVIDE FOR THE EDUCATION OF ITS PEOPLE

The State governments do a great many things to help their people get a good education. They provide State schools where everything is paid out of tax money. Our system of public schools supported by tax money is an important part of the foundation of our American way of living. The States may make laws to compel children to attend school.

State officials often have the duty of deciding what courses of study shall be given in the various grades of the public schools, and are even required in many cases to decide what textbooks shall be used. They sometimes have the power to allot State funds to poor communities which cannot themselves raise enough money to have good schools. They build and operate schools and colleges in which teachers are trained. Most States maintain a State university and other State colleges. Sometimes the States provide special schools or classes where housewives can learn home management, where workmen can learn trades and crafts, and where farmers can learn scientific farming. They also often have experiment stations where experts make many kinds of tests to find better ways of educating and protecting the people. You will want to study the educational system of your State and learn all the different kinds of schools which it provides.

IT IS THE DUTY OF A STATE TO PROTECT THE LIVES AND PROPERTY OF ITS CITIZENS

'As you have learned, police officers, sheriffs, and constables have the duty of keeping order, preventing crime, and arresting criminals. The State maintains groups of trained soldiers, known as the militia or National Guard, who may be called upon for help when the local officials need it. The governor of the State is the commander of the National Guard. He may send these soldiers to any part of the State when he thinks that local officials are not able to keep peace and order there. This State military organization offers to the people an additional protection against violence and helps to protect life and property. Some States have also established a State police force to

maintain order on the highways and elsewhere and to offer immediate help in time of need.

A STATE MAY HELP TO IMPROVE WAYS OF TRAVEL

Nowadays more and more people are driving automobiles. There were about 30 million motorcars licensed in the United States in 1939. We need many miles of good roads. Most of our States have worked long and hard at road building, and today this country has some of the finest roads in the world.

In providing good roads local governments always need help. Many of our roads must extend long distances, sometimes the whole length of the State and farther. So the States build and repair "State roads" and usually help to pay the cost of building and repairing county and township roads. The State governments cooperate with the National Government in planning, building, and paying for national highways which cross their own States.

The States also issue licenses to owners of motor cars and trucks, and drivers' licenses or permits to qualified drivers. Sometimes they allow a "toll" to be charged for the use of public roads or bridges until the cost of building such roads or bridges has been paid back by the people who use them.

Most States require that railway crossings which are used by many people shall be guarded by gates or signal lights. They also set State speed limits for automobiles and sometimes for railroad trains.

A STATE MAY MAKE PROVISION FOR PEOPLE WHO ARE IN DISTRESS

State governments usually help to care for citizens who are unable to care for themselves. They often maintain homes for orphans and crippled children, homes for the aged, and special schools for the deaf and blind. Especially during times of unemployment, the work of the States in caring for their needy citizens is very necessary and important.

WE EXPECT THE STATE TO HELP TO PROTECT ITS NATURAL RICHES

For many years the people of this country have wasted their forests, the soil in which food can be grown, and the minerals under the ground. Today State governments and the National Government are trying to stop such waste. Among other things they are cooperating to—

1. Set aside or buy timber lands for State or National forests and regulate the cutting of trees on them.

2. Plant trees to take the place of those cut down, blown down or burned.

- 3. Prevent the washing away (erosion) of the soil.
- 4. Set aside and manage State and National parks.
- 5. Protect wild birds and animals.
- 6. Keep the soil fertile by teaching farmers how and when to plant crops and how to use fertilizers.
- 7. Provide for the wise use of water power in rivers and streams.

8. Regulate the development and removal of underground deposits of oil, coal, and other minerals.

9. Carry water from rivers and lakes to *irrigate* (put water on) lands which have before been too dry to grow crops.

10. Educate the people of the country so that they understand how large an interest they have in these natural riches and how they can share in protecting them.

WE EXPECT THE STATE TO PROTECT AND REGULATE VARIOUS BUSINESSES

Usually when persons wish to form a private company to do business they must get a charter (permit) from the State in which they wish to have their principal office. From time to time these companies may be asked to make reports to the State showing the condition of their businesses. A State charter gives the company which holds it the authority to have its head office in that State and to do its work there and elsewhere.

State constitutions usually give State governments the right to supervise and inspect conditions in mines, factories, and other places where citizens work. The States may supervise and make certain rules for the transportation lines within their borders; for telegraph, telephone, gas, water, and electric companies serving their people; for banks and insurance companies to which citizens may entrust their money. The purpose of these laws and rules is to protect both the citizens who are customers of these companies and the citizens whose money is invested in them.

WE EXPECT THE STATE TO REGULATE CERTAIN LIVING AND WORKING CONDITIONS OF ITS CITIZENS

The States pass many laws for the welfare of their citizens under the authority usually known as their "police powers." This means the power delegated to a State by its people to protect their lives, health, and morals and to provide for their safety, comfort, and convenience. The States use their police power when they pass laws forbidding all sorts of gambling and lotteries and when they prohibit or regulate the sale of liquor. Under the police power the States have sometimes passed laws regulating the hours of labor of women and children and protecting workers from dangerous conditions. Such laws include factory rules which require proper air supply, lighting, toilet arrangements, fire protection, and the guarding of dangerous machines. In case workers are injured at their work, many States have made legal provisions by which those workers receive pay for the injury. States often set up special agencies to help employers and employees settle their differences by peaceful methods.

THINGS TO DO

Questions to discuss in your study group:

- 1. Find out about and discuss some of the State institutions in your State. How many of the following are there in your State which are kept up by the State?
 - 1. Colleges and universities.
 - 2. Prisons

- 3. Schools for the deaf.
- 4. Schools for the blind.
- 5. Schools for training teachers.
- Hospitals.
- 7. Homes for the aged.
- 8. Homes for orphans.
- 9 Institutions for the insane.

What purpose is served by each of these institutions?

If it is possible, arrange for field trips to several of them. Study the objectives of each institution visited and discuss your findings in your class group.

- 2. Discuss any improvements which your State has helped to make in the transportation system of some nearby community. How have these proved useful to the citizens of the State?
- 3. While every citizen has the right to own property, in what cases may his right to use it as he pleases be limited? Do you think this is important for the citizens of the State? Why or why not?
- 4. Why is it important to every citizen in the State that surgeons, dentists, and druggists should be required to take out State licenses?
- 5. In what ways do the licenses which the State issues to owners of motor cars act as a protection to you and your friends?
- 6. Is there any program in your community which is a part of the State's program to protect the natural riches of the Nation? How are these programs valuable to the individual families in the community or State?

Some more words which the student should understand:

allot—give a share of something to. charitable—doing good to those in distress.

erosion—the wearing away or washing away of soil and rocks.
experiment stations—places where new ways of doing things are officially tested.

fertilizers—material which makes the soil more fertile and feeds the plant life in it.

insurance companies—businesses which contract to pay money in case certain events occur, as fires, accidents, deaths, etc.

invested-used money to buy some other kind of wealth.

irrigate—supply farm lands with enough water to make plants grow.

morals-personal conduct as to right and wrong.

scientific—based on knowledge and system.

timber lands-lands on which trees are growing thickly.

toll—a fixed charge for some privilege, as of traveling on a road or bridge.

transportation lines—companies which operate vehicles or ships to carry persons or goods.

tuberculosis-a disease, usually of the lungs.



CHAPTER 18

How Our State Governments Are Organized

"Each State has a constitution which provides for the general organization of the State government and which is the highest State law."

*

You have just read about the many services which our State governments do for us. Many officials and their helpers are needed to do these things, and they must have some kind of an organization through which to do their work. So each of our 48 States has its own plan of government. This chapter will tell us about the organization of our State governments and how the organization operates.

STATE CONSTITUTIONS PROVIDE THE GENERAL PLAN OF GOVERN-MENT ORGANIZATION FOR THE STATES

Each of the groups of people who gathered to write a State constitution faced problems which were peculiar to their own State. Some had to consider how the State would set up governments for large cities; but all had to consider how the State would set up governments for towns, counties, and other local units.

Our 48 States are very different from one another. They vary greatly in population and in area. On the one hand we find Rhode Island with a land area of little more than 1,200 square miles, and on the other hand we find Texas with a land area of about 266,000 square miles. In population we find Nevada with only about 110,000 inhabitants and New York State with over 13,000,000. Some of our States contain mostly farm lands; others contain great industrial sections. Yet in our United States Senate all States have equal representation. And in their

authority to attend to their own local affairs and to do business with one another they stand as equals.

In spite of the differences among the 48 States, they all have governments which are somewhat alike in organization

IN SOME WAYS THE GOVERNMENT ORGANIZATIONS OF THE CITIES, THE STATES, AND THE NATION ARE ALIKE

There are three general branches of the governments of our cities, States, and Nation. These are the legislative branch (to make the laws), the executive branch (to enforce the laws), and the judicial branch (to explain and apply the laws). Study Figure 40 and you will see how this division of authority runs through the government organization of the Nation, the States, and the cities.

THE LAWMAKING BRANCH OF THE STATE GOVERNMENT—THE LEGISLATURE

The lawmaking branch of the State government is made up of two separate groups in every State except Nebraska, Each group can change or defeat a proposed law which the other group has passed.

The State lawmaking body is generally called the State Legislature or Assembly. It is divided into two groups or houses, one usually called the Senate and the other the House of Representatives. Members of the Senate are usually called Senators, while members of the House are known as Representatives or Assemblymen. In most cases the House of Representatives is much larger than the Senate.

Although the county is usually the basis of representation in both Senate and House, Senators in some States are elected from districts formed by grouping a number of counties together or by dividing a large and populous county into two or more districts. In most States the Senators serve 4 years and Representatives 2 years, although in a few States both serve 2 years, and in still others 4 years.

HOW THE ORGANIZATION OF GOVERNMENT IN CITIES, STATES, AND THE NATION IS MUCH ALIKE

| | Each has a Legislative Branch 10 make laws | Each has an Executive Branch to enforce the laws | Each has a judicial Branch to explain and apply the laws |
|--------------------------|---|--|--|
| The National Government: | The Congress,—Senate and House of Representatives. | President, Vice President, 10 Executive Departments, and The Federal courts, other executive agencies. | The Federal courts. |
| The State Government: | The State Legislature.—(Two houses in all States but Nebraska.) | The governor and heads of executive departments. | The State courts. |
| The City Government: | The City Council or Commissioners, | The City Council or Com- The mayor or manager or missionen. | The city courts. |

How the Organization of Government in Cities, States, and the Nation is Much Alike Figure 40

In most States the two houses meet in the State capital for a legislative session every 2 years. In a few States they meet every year, and in Alabama they meet only once in every 4 years. They may, however, be called into special session by the governor of the State whenever he considers it necessary.

How Are the State Lawmakers Chosen?

The State is divided into districts and the people of each district have the right to elect one State senator and one or more representatives. It is nearly always required that candidates for these offices shall live for at least 1 year in their districts before they can qualify for election. The State government often has great difficulty in dividing the State into districts so fairly that both city and country people get equal representation in the State legislature.

How Does the State Legislature Operate To Make State Laws?

In the 47 States which have legislatures divided into two houses, laws are made in the same general way.

Any member of either house of the legislature may bring forward a proposal (called a bill) which he wishes to have enacted into a law. After the bill is introduced in either house it is turned over to a committee of that house for study.

Most of the business of the State legislature is carried on by committees. In considering important bills the committees usually hold public hearings. At these hearings they listen to persons favoring or opposing the bill, who may explain their reasons and urge the house to pass it or not to pass it. If the committee decides that the bill should become a law, it makes a report to the house and tells exactly what good this legislation is expected to do and why it should pass. In the case of many bills, however, the committee to which they are sent does not approve or cannot agree, and so makes no report. Such bills fail to get any consideration from the full membership of the legislature, unless the legislators favoring them can persuade a

majority of the house to vote to consider them without a committee report.

After a committee has made a favorable report on a bill, there is usually some debate on the "floor" of the house before the bill is voted upon. Members may want to tell how good or bad they think it is. When the vote is taken, a majority of those voting must show themselves favorable or the bill is beaten. The committee may make changes (called amendments), and even after the committee has recommended the bill individual members of the house may propose amendments to be voted on by their fellow members.

After a bill is voted on favorably by either house it is sent to the other house. Here it gets much the same treatment. It is referred to a committee for study and a report. If it is sent back with a favorable report, it is usually the subject of a debate in the second house before it comes to a vote. If the bill is changed by the second house, it is then sent to a committee made up of members of both houses, called a "conference committee." It may be rewritten or adjusted by the conference committee to include the changes which the committee believes will be satisfactory to both houses. If this is done successfully, the bill is then voted on favorably by both houses. It is then sent to the governor of the State. If he signs it the bill becomes a law.

In every State except North Carolina, the governor may disapprove (veto) a bill if he does not like it. If he vetoes it, or refuses to sign it, he can ordinarily prevent it from becoming a law. However, the legislators have a right to vote on the bill again to decide whether it shall become a law without the governor's approval. In some States a majority of the legislators in each house can pass a law in spite of the governor's veto. In other States a two-thirds vote of the members of each house is required.

What Laws Does the State Legislature Make?

From your study of the last chapter, which describes the services that a State may do for its people, you can judge

what kinds of laws the State legislature is likely to make. In general, State laws cover the special needs and purposes of the people of the State. They deal with such matters as marriage, divorce, education, public health, the protection of the lives and property of citizens, and the care of the poor and needy. They provide for police protection and for the punishment of crime. They tell when and how State elections shall be held and how State taxes shall be assessed and collected.

You have already learned that the State legislature does not have authority to pass any law which *conflicts* with the National Constitution, the laws of Congress, or our treaties with foreign countries.

THE LAW-ENFORCING BRANCH OF THE STATE GOVERNMENT—THE EXECUTIVE

The executive branch of the State government includes the governor and other important officers.

The Governor is the Chief Executive Officer of the State

He is elected by the people of the State. In some States his term of office is 2 years, in others 4 years.

The powers of the governor are outlined in the State constitution. He may help to make laws by advising the legislature about new laws which he thinks are needed. He may call the legislature to special meetings (sessions) to consider such laws. He appoints members of a large number of boards and commissions; in some States his principal appointments must be approved by the State senate. He is the head of the National Guard of his State and may use it to keep order when he thinks there is danger of riot and bloodshed. He may pardon persons who have been convicted of crimes by the State courts. He may also shorten the sentences of such criminals.

If a governor dies or is removed from office, the State law usually provides that his place shall be taken by the lieutenant governor. The lieutenant governor usually acts as the presiding officer of the Senate.

Other State Officers

The executive branch of the State government includes many important executive officers. There is a secretary of state who keeps the official records of the State. He publishes the State laws and sends out notices of elections. He usually makes the final report of the result of any State election.

The attorney general is the chief law officer of the State. He goes into the law courts, or sends one or more of his assistants, to represent the State in any case in which the interests of the people of the State are involved. He also advises the governor and other State officials as to the meaning and application of many State laws.

The State treasurer takes care of the money which comes to the State from taxes, licenses, and fees. When he receives proper warrants (orders), he pays the bills of the State.

The State auditor or comptroller examines all the bills of the State. If he finds they are correct, he issues warrants to the treasurer to pay them. He must keep a careful record of all money paid into the treasury, of all money paid out, and of all money which the State legislature has voted to spend. This official also examines the records of the county, city, and village officers who collect money for the State. In many cases the auditor is elected by the people.

The executive branch includes many departments and commissions. In most States an official called a labor commissioner (or a group called a labor board) is made responsible for labor conditions in the State, as explained in the last chapter. Usually there is a banking commission in charge of examining the way in which State banks conduct their business. A board of health carries out the program already discussed for improving the health of the citizens. Usually a highway commission has charge of road building. Your own State may have other important boards and commissions. You will want to learn something of their work.

As a rule the most important of the State executive officials are elected by the people. In some States the governor is given a considerable amount of control over the work of the other State officials, but in others he has practically no control at all. It is, of course, a great deal better for the citizens when he has enough control over their works that he can be held responsible for the efficiency of the entire executive department of the State government.

Some States use a system called "civil service" for choosing employees for State positions. Under this system persons wanting positions in the State government must take examinations to prove their qualifications to do the work well, and are not eligible for appointment unless they pass these examinations with a satisfactory rating. This way of choosing helpers for the officials whom the people have elected is intended to put much of the work of government offices into the hands of qualified workers not subject to political control and change. In some States, however, there are a considerable number of positions for which a civil-service examination is not required.

THE LAW-EXPLAINING BRANCH OF THE STATE GOVERNMENT—THE JUDICIARY

Each State has a system of law courts which is called the State judiciary. The judges of these courts have the duty of explaining the State laws and of telling how the laws shall be applied in cases brought to the court by persons or organizations, or by the State in seeking to punish criminals. They try to settle disagreements in which persons, groups of persons, or even the State or local governments may be involved. They hear cases about personal rights and property. They help to decide the guilt or innocence of persons accused of breaking the State laws and determine the punishment of crimes.

The State supreme court may declare that a State law which does not agree with the State constitution or the Constitution of the United States is *void* and cannot be enforced. Such a law, as we have learned, is then called "unconstitutional."

The State Courts Have Authority to Decide Two General Classes of Cases

The State courts have authority to try two general classes of cases-civil and criminal. You have learned that every person has certain rights to his freedom, property, and life. If another person does not respect these rights but violates them, he can be sued in court by the persons whose rights are violated. It is the duty of the court to hear both sides of the case and to stop the injury and make the person at fault pay for whatever damage he has caused. In such a case between two persons, where the injury does not affect the general public, the court action is called a "civil suit," If the injury does harm to the public welfare and breaks a law which protects the people, the act is considered a crime and the State brings a "criminal action" against the person who has broken the law. Among the principal crimes are murder, burglary, robbery. bribery, and perjury (false swearing).

Kinds of State Courts

The simplest form of State court is usually presided over by a justice of the peace. This court hears cases in which the amount of money or the offense involved is not great. In large cities, however, such work is usually done by the police courts or special municipal courts.

To hear cases involving more important questions, the States and counties have various other courts, usually called district courts, superior courts, circuit courts, or common pleas courts, which are, in most cases, authorized to decide both civil and criminal cases.

The highest court in the State is usually called the supreme court. The supreme court hears many cases which have already been argued and decided in a lower court, but in a way which the loser believes to be unfair; in fact, most of its work is in hearing such appeal cases. The supreme court is given power to review (consider over

again) the decisions of the lower courts under certain conditions, in order to protect all parties from possible injustice. The right to such a review is known as the

right of appeal.

In some States there are a larger number of special courts. For example, there may be a probate court to help to distribute the property of persons who have died. There may be children's courts (sometimes called "juvenile courts") to try cases in which children have broken the law. There may be courts of domestic relations to settle the disagreements of husbands and wives. And there may be small claims courts to handle cases of small debts in a very inexpensive way.

The Judges

All trials are presided over by judges, who are usually elected by the people, although in some States they are appointed by the governor or the State legislature. In the higher courts the judges keep their positions for a long time, from 6 years to 15 or more. In lower courts the terms are shorter.

The Procedure in Our Courts Is Much Like That in England

Many of our court practices have come from the English courts. You already know, for instance, that generally persons who are accused of crime in the United States have the right to a trial by jury. And you know that an accused person cannot lawfully be punished twice for the same offense.

There Are Two Kinds of Juries

A grand jury is made up of a number of persons, called jurors, who decide whether a person accused of a crime shall be obliged to defend himself in court. It usually reaches its decisions by a majority vote of its members. If the grand jury finds there is enough evidence to bring the accused person to trial, it draws up a formal charge in writing, called an indictment. Then a trial must be held to decide whether the person is guilty or inno-

cent. For this purpose a trial jury (sometimes called a petit jury) is chosen. The trial jury usually consists of 12 citizens. Its members hear the evidence at the trial and decide whether the accused person is guilty or innocent. In most States the decision (verdict) of the petit jury must be agreed to by every member of the jury (by a unanimous vote). To help the jury reach its decision, it is the duty of the judge to explain the law to the jurors.

If the accused person cannot afford to pay for legal representation, the State provides at public expense a lawyer, whose duty it is to defend the accused person and to prove him innocent if possible. A prosecuting attorney presents the State's case to prove that the accused person is guilty.

If the jury decides that the accused person is "not guilty," he is acquitted. If the jury decides the person is "guilty," he is convicted, and the judge must set the punishment for his offense. The accused person may "appeal" to a higher court if he thinks his trial was not fair or according to law.

THINGS TO DO

Complete each of the following:

| 1. | The three branches of every State government are- |
|----|---|
| | (1) |
| | (2) |
| | (3) |
| 2. | Three important executive officials of the State are- |
| | (1) |
| | (2) |
| | (3) |
| | |

WORK PROJECT

The Constitution of your State is the legal foundation for your State government. Ask the leader of your study group to help you get a copy of it from your Secretary of State. When you receive it learn—

- a. When it was adopted.
- b. Whether it has been amended.

Compare it with the Constitution of the United States for ways in which the two documents are alike and different. Make a large chart, something like the one below, and fill it out as completely as you can. Two sets of comments are given you on the chart below to indicate how to make your chart. After you have finished the work, discuss your comments with your study group and see what conclusions you can reach.

A STUDY OF OUR NATIONAL AND STATE CONSTITUTIONS

| Constitution of the United States | State Constitution | | |
|---|--------------------|--|--|
| SIMILARITIES: | | | |
| Preamble sets forth the objectives. | 1. Same. | | |
| 2 | 2. | | |
| 3 | 3 | | |
| 4 | 4. | | |
| 5 | 5 | | |
| CONTRASTS: | | | |
| 1. Rather short, | 1. Rather long. | | |
| 2. | 2 | | |
| 3. | 3 | | |
| 4. | 4 | | |
| CONCLUSIONS: | | | |
| 1 | | | |
| 2 | | | |
| | | | |

| 3. Three kinds of courts found in most of our States are— |
|--|
| (1) |
| (2) |
| (3) |
| 4. The two houses of the State legislature are usually called— $$ |
| (1) |
| (2) |
| Choose the word or words which make the correct ending for each of the following sentences: |
| 1. Each of our 48 States has a— (1) constitution. (2) Federal legislature. (3) one-house lawmaking body. |
| 2. The general plan of each State government is outlined in— |
| (1) the National Constitution. (2) the national laws. (3) the State constitution. |
| 3. The legislative branch of the State government— (1) explains the laws. (2) makes the laws. (3) tries cases in the courts. |
| 4. Bills may be introduced in the State legislature by— the President of the United States. the governor. members of the State legislature. |
| 5. The executive branch of the State government— (1) hears court cases. (2) enforces the laws of the State. |

(3) makes laws for the State.

THE LAWMAKING BRANCH OF YOUR OWN STATE GOVERNMENT

Discuss in your group the lawmaking branch of your own State government. Perhaps you will want to learn more about it from your State constitution. See how much of the following chart you can complete.

| | Lower house | Upper house | | |
|--|-------------|-------------|--|--|
| Name of | | | | |
| Number of members in each | | | | |
| How members are elected to each | | | | |
| Length of term of members of each | | | | |
| How often are sessions held | | | | |
| Qualifications of the members of each | | | | |
| Most important com- mittees in each | | | | |

Figure 42

Work Project: The Lawmaking Branch of the State Government

Select the word or phrase that will make each of the following statements read correctly:

 The State legislature usually consists of one house.

two houses.

The system of courts in the State is called the State judiciary.

the State executive.

3. The government in each of the 48 States has-

 $\frac{3}{6}$ branches.

4. The State legislature $\frac{\text{does}}{\text{does not}}$ have authority to pass a law which conflicts with the National Constitution.

Some more words which the student should understand:

adjusted-arranged in a way which satisfies everybody.

application—the act of testing a general principle by putting it into practice.

basis-foundation.

bribery—the act of giving or receiving something of value for the purpose of influencing official action in an improper way. conflicts—is contrary to, or in opposition to.

efficiency—the way to get the best results with the least cost of time, money, or effort.

eligible—fit to be chosen.

engine—in to be chosen enacted—made into law.

quilt-the fact of having broken a law.

hearings-public meetings which are held to discuss bills.

involved-included, as a necessary part.

labor commissioner—an executive officer having charge of matters concerning wage earners.

municipal-having to do with a city.

pardon-excuse or forgive, relieve from further punishment.

peculiar-special, especially belonging to.

petit jury—a group of persons, usually 12, chosen to hear and decide cases in court.

populous-having many people.

THE EXECUTIVE BRANCH OF YOUR OWN STATE GOVERNMENT

Discuss in your group the executive branch of your own State government. If you wish, use your State constitution to help you in completing the following chart.

| Official | Appointed or elected | Term of office | Duties | | |
|------------------------------|----------------------|----------------|--------|--|--|
| Governor | | | | | |
| Lieutenant governor | | | | | |
| Secretary of state | | | | | |
| State treasurer | | | | | |
| Attorney general | | | | | |
| Superintendent of schools | | | | | |
| Other officials | | | | | |

Figure 43

Wark Project: The Executive Branch of the State Government

probate—having to do with proving that a will was properly made by a person who has died.
procedure—way in which things may be done properly.
review—consider over again.
unanimous—all agreeing.
verilat—decision of a jury.
void—empty, having no effect.



CHAPTER 19

The Objectives of Our National (Federal) Government

"Each of our 48 States yields to the general interest of the entire Nation in recognizing the National Government as the one which holds the Nation together and promotes the welfare of all of the people."

4

In the last three chapters we have been reading about the objectives and services of our State, city, and local governments, and about their organization.

Now we come to a study of the National Government. This is the government which holds the whole Nation together as one great republic and which is organized to serve the general needs of all the people throughout the Nation. Many Americans have the habit of calling it the "Federal" Government, as a name to distinguish it from State and local governments. Do you remember what "Federal" means?

In the early chapters of this book you learned how 13 colonies along the American shore of the Atlantic Ocean were governed by the King and the Parliament of Great Britain and how they declared their independence because of the unfair treatment which they received from the British Government of that time. You learned how the new States, after living through nearly 13 years of war and stormy peace under a weak central government, held a convention at Philadelphia and finally agreed upon a National (or Federal) Constitution and a union of all the States. Naturally the first thing the Fathers of the Constitution wrote on paper was a statement of their objectives—how they expected the people to profit and get advantage from a new central government.

HOW THE CONSTITUTION EXPLAINS THE OBJECTIVES OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

In chapter 8 you learned very briefly about the Preamble of the Constitution. It contains only 52 words and is so short that, in the hand-written document which was signed at Philadelphia on September 17, 1787, and which may now be seen in the Library of Congress at Washington, it fills only three lines of writing. Yet in it is the combined wisdom and experience of the 39 signers, led by such farseeing statesmen as George Washington, Benjamin Frankseing, James Madison, and Alexander Hamilton, who were able to set down with unmistakable clearness the great objectives of our Federal Union. These objectives every American citizen should understand and remember.

Look again at Figure 15, which quotes the Preamble of the Constitution in full. You will see that the Fathers of the Constitution had the courage and self-confidence to speak for the whole American people. It begins: "We the People of the United States." Then it states six purposes or objectives which the people had in mind in establishing the Constitution. These objectives have been the guiding principles of the Government of the United States ever since.

(I) WE THE PEOPLE OF THE UNITED STATES, IN ORDER TO FORM A MORE PERFECT UNION

This matter of a "more perfect union" was one of the hardest problems facing the 13 new States in 1787. We explained in chapter 7 how many difficulties blocked the path of the Fathers of the Constitution. It was quite clear, of course, that almost any union would be more "perfect" than that which had existed under the Articles of Confederation. The union between independent States, which was put into effect in 1789, however, has lasted over 150 years, has grown to include 48 States, and is today strong and effective in doing many valuable services for the whole American people.

The Constitution makers let the States keep all the powers required to meet their local needs and to do those things which their people especially needed and wanted in their every-day life—provided that such powers did not interfere in a few specified ways with the needs and welfare of the whole people. This was THE UNION, about which the men of 1787 thought and argued so long and so patiently and which the American people have valued so dearly ever since. The power of each State over its local affairs—matters such as business organization, work conditions, marriage and divorce, local taxation, and the ordinary "police powers" (which we have already explained)—is so fully recognized and accepted that often we find two States situated side by side which have widely differing laws on the same subjects.

About 80 years ago, in the days when Negro slaves did most of the heavy labor in the southern part of this country, this question of "States' rights" led to a long and bloody war between the States; for the people of the Northern States claimed that the Federal Government should regulate slavery in new States, while those of the Southern States insisted that the ownership of slaves was a matter about which each State, old or new, had the authority to decide for itself. It was proved then that a majority of the American people favored an undivided Union of all the States and were willing to fight a long war to save the Union from being broken up. At the end of the war, all of the States were held together in the Union under the Federal Constitution; and since the Constitution guaranteed to each State a republican form of government, the States continued, after this stormy time, to manage their own affairs as before, with the single exception that before the end of the war slavery had been abolished by an amendment to the Constitution of the United States.

A Union of 48 States, spread out over a great country like ours, with so many different problems and interests, can never be "perfect"; but the Union planned by the Fathers of the Constitution has been of immense and lasting value to the people of the United States, and the objective of maintaining and improving the Federal Union is worthy of the loyalty and untiring efforts of all our government groups.

(II) WE THE PEOPLE OF THE UNITED STATES, IN ORDER TO . . .

We have learned that one of the most important guides followed by the Fathers of the Constitution was the Declaration of Independence. This great document of human liberty announced the principle that "all men are created equal" and that they have certain rights which should never be taken away from them, among which are "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness."

In the United States all persons are equal in the eyes of the law. Even though one person may be rich and another poor, or one person may be a famous public character and another a quiet worker who is known only to his neighbors, both are equal before the law. Both must obey the law and both have an equal right to its protection.

All persons who are found guilty of disobeving the law are held, according to the objectives of the Constitution, to be equally subject to punishment, whether they are rich or poor, famous or obscure. When a law is broken, the government must punish the lawbreaker, whoever he is. The same spirit of fairness is guaranteed to the people in settling their personal or business disagreements in the law courts. In old times when people disagreed they often settled their disputes with swords or pistols or by assembling groups of friends or followers and fighting it out among themselves. Then the man who had the strongest arm or the sharpest eye or the most friends or followers could seemingly prove that he was right, whether he really was or not. Under our form of government we insist that people shall settle their disputes peaceably, and we maintain courts of justice for that purpose. "We the People of the United States" wish and plan that everybody shall receive equal justice from our laws and our courts.

(III) WE THE PEOPLE OF THE UNITED STATES, IN ORDER TO ...

"Tranquillity" means "peace," "domestic" means "at home," and "insure" means "make sure of." One reason for the adoption of the Federal Constitution was to make it possible for the States to be on more friendly terms with one another; another was to insure peace at home by making the Federal Government strong enough to protect the people from the violence of enemies. In the Fourth Article of the Constitution, the United States Government undertook to protect every State from invasion, and, if a State government asked it, to protect such State from outbreaks of violence at home. No part of the United States has been invaded by any foreign nation since General Andrew Jackson won the Battle of New Orleans in 1815. The State governments have generally proved powerful enough to maintain law and order within their own borders without help; so the Federal Government has not often been called on for protection against domestic violence. But the whole power of our strong Federal Government stands always ready "to insure domestic tranquillity."

(IV) WE THE PEOPLE OF THE UNITED STATES, IN ORDER TO . . . PROVIDE FOR THE COMMON DEFENSE

In the early days of this Nation its citizens were threatened with many dangers from foreign nations. The British owned Canada, the French owned Louisiana, and the Spanish owned Florida, Texas, and Mexico. Our young and weak Nation was thus surrounded by the territory of European nations which were none too friendly and which, soon after our Federal Government was first organized, began to fight among themselves in a long series of European wars. The constitutional objective of "the common defense" became very important but was very slow to be developed by the Federal Government because a great part of our national energy was turned to the settling of the newly opened territory west of the 13 origi-

nal States and to the subduing of the Indian tribes in that territory.

In the years from 1812 to 1814 the United States was obliged to fight a second war with Great Britain, because the British adopted a practice of searching and seizing our merchant vessels which were carrying goods to other European countries and of taking American seamen forcibly from our ships to fight on British war vessels against the French: in doing so they refused to recognize the American citizenship of many of our newly naturalized citizens. This war went very badly for the United States at first, because our Government had failed to provide for the common defense. Fortunately for us, the British had many troubles in Europe and did not work hard to win the war. although they did succeed in capturing the city of Washington and in burning the Capitol. Our Navy grew steadily stronger as the war went on, and our Government slowly learned how to choose capable generals and how to organize and equip armies which could win battles. In the end a peace was made that did not settle any of the questions about which the war had been fought. But this country had learned a valuable lesson about "the common defense."

The duty of maintaining a proper defense for our country and our people is divided by the Federal Constitution between the Legislative and the Executive Branches of the Government. The Congress is given authority to declare war and to maintain and pay the expenses of an Army and a Navy. The President is made Commander in Chief of both the Army and the Navy. It is not the policy of the United States to attack other nations, but by maintaining a powerful Army and Navy it stands ready to fulfill the constitutional objective of providing for the common defense. Today the United States Navy is one of the strongest defense organizations in the world.

(V) WE THE PEOPLE OF THE UNITED STATES, IN ORDER TO . . . PROMOTE THE GENERAL WELFARE

"To promote the general welfare" means to work for the good of the whole people.

At the end of the War of Independence the people of the United States found themselves in a position of great hardship. Many of their young men, whose strength was needed to help to raise the crops, build the homes, and operate the shops and factories and shipyards of a growing nation, had been in General Washington's armies for 6 years or more. The business of most of the communities in the 13 States had come to a standstill. The Nation and all of the States were so deeply in debt that their paper money had come to have very little value. Everybody suffered from such conditions, and many people hoped that a stronger central government might somehow do great things to promote the general welfare.

In giving the Congress its authority to make laws for the good of the whole people, the Federal Constitution

provides, in section 8 of its First Article, that-

"The Congress shall have power to...lay and collect taxes.... to pay the debts and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States..."

So we find the common defense and general welfare mentioned twice in the Constitution—once in the Preamble and once in the First Article. They are evidently very important objectives of a democratic government "of the

people, by the people, and for the people."

Today our Federal Government does many services for the general welfare of the American people. You will find a great number of such services listed in chapters 23 and 24 of this book, which describe the activities of the executive departments and agencies in putting into effect the laws for the general welfare which are passed by the Congress.

(VI) WE THE PEOPLE OF THE UNITED STATES, IN ORDER TO ... SECURE THE BLESSINGS OF LIBERTY TO OURSELVES AND OUR POSTERTY

One of the purposes of the people in adopting the Federal Constitution was to make sure that the freedom which

they had just won would not be allowed to slip away from them. The Fathers of the Constitution, in giving authority to the Federal Government, were careful to protect the rights and privileges of all persons by putting limits on the powers of both the National and State Governments, beyond which they were not permitted to go. In this way, the people of the United States, as long as they obey the law, may go freely from place to place, may enjoy their lives and property in safety, and may go to the courts for justice and protection in cases where they feel their rights are being taken away from them, either by the Government or by other people.

So as long as our Government lasts, it must serve the needs of the people who give it authority, for this is the only way to preserve and secure the "blessings of liberty." It is this objective which was in the minds of the writers of the Declaration of Independence when they declared that the people "are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights, that among these are life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness. — That to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed ——."

THINGS TO DO

Fill in the blanks with the proper words:

- 1. The Government which holds the whole Nation together is called the ______ Government.
- 2. The Preamble to the Constitution begins with these words "_______"
- 3. There are _____ (give number of) objectives set forth in the Preamble to the Constitution.

WORK PROJECT

We have been reading about the objectives of our several government units. Every government unit, whether it is the Nation or a small town, has many tasks to do. Make a large chart something like the pattern shown below. Iry to complete it. Add other units or agencies if you wish and tell what purpose each serve.

OBJECTIVES OF GOVERNMENT AGENCIES AND UNITS

| The unit or agency | One or more objectives of each |
|----------------------------|--------------------------------|
| The Nation | |
| Your own State | |
| Your State lawmaking body. | |
| Your State Governor | |
| Your State courts | |
| The State Highway com- | |
| Your city or town | |
| Your local police | |
| Your local fire department | |
| Other agencies | |
| | |

Figure 44

Work Project: Objectives of Government Agencies and Units

Questions to answer in your study group:

- 1. Why did the Fathers of the Constitution want to make the Union of the States stronger?
- 2. Can your State make its own laws about things which concern it alone?
- 3. Could a poor man be punished more severely for committing a crime than a rich man who committed the same crime?
- 4. If there is an uprising within a State, may that State call on the Federal Government for help?
- 5. If a foreign country should try to invade one of the 48 States, would the Federal Government send help to the State? Why or why not?
- 6. How many things can you think of which our Government does to help our general welfare?
- 7. What did the Fathers of the Constitution mean by wanting to "secure the blessings of Liberty to Ourselves and Our Posterity"? Is that still a wish of our country today?

Some more words which the student should understand:

Capitol—the building in which the United States Congress meets in Washington, D. C.

distinguish—make a thing stand out from other things. obscure—not well known.

specified—named or set apart particularly.

yields—gives way to.

CHAPTER 20

How Our National (Federal) Government Is Organized

THE LEGISLATIVE BRANCH (1)

"All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives."

—First Article of the Federal Constitution.

_

In the last chapter you learned about the objectives of the Federal Government. In this chapter and the next four we shall consider how the Government is organized and how it operates in serving the people. We shall see that the organization of the Federal Government is very much like that of the States.

In this chapter let us study the Legislative Branch of the Federal Government; in doing so we shall be much helped by what we have already learned about the legislatures of the States.

★ THE CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES

The first sentence of the First Article of the Federal Constitution is printed at the beginning of this chapter. In the Constitution itself it follows directly after the Preamble. So the first authority which "We the People" delegated to our representatives was the authority to make laws, and that authority was given not to one group but to two, known as the Senate and the House of Representatives, working together as the Congress of the United States.

How the Two Houses of the Congress Are Organized

In chapter 7 you learned that in the Constitutional Convention the delegates from the smaller States asked to be given equal representation with the larger States in both houses of the Congress but finally compromised by agreeing that in the Senate each State should have two Senators while in the House of Representatives each State should be allotted Members on the basis of the number of its population. If you turn to Figure 45 you will find a list showing how many Representatives are at present allotted to each of our 48 States.

Since the Seventeenth Amendment was adopted in 1913, United States Senators are elected by the voters of the States at a regular election. Representatives have always been elected in that way. Before 1913 Senators were elected by State legislatures and the people had no direct part in their selection. This was because in the early days of the Constitution the Senators were supposed to represent the State governments in seeing that the small States got equal treatment with the large States.

The Reason for Having Two Houses of the Congress

Most of the 13 Colonies had had governors' councils appointed by the King, and these councils had been given the royal authority to review the actions of the assemblies made up of representatives of the people. Usually the members of these councils were either rich and prominent men of the Colonies or relatives of the governors or members of old English families. They were the representatives of wealth and property and were supposed to be strong for law and order. When the Colonies became States, their taxpayers were afraid to give the whole lawmaking authority to assembly members who were elected for only a short term and did not have to be men of much property. So all the new State constitutions (except Pennsylvania and Georgia) set up Senates, whose members were elected for longer terms and had to be men of property.

When the Constitutional Convention made its plans for a lawmaking group, it found great usefulness in this State custom of having two houses of legislature. This made possible the Great Compromise of 1787, of which you

LEGISLATIVE BRANCH OF OUR NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

☆

THE CONGRESS MAKES THE LAWS

THROUGH

THE SENATE (96 Senators)

Qualifications: At least 30 years old, 9 years a citizen of the United States, an inhabitant of the State where elected.

2 Senators from each State



THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

(435 Representatives)

Qualifications: At least 25 years old, 7 years a citizen of the United States, an inhabitant of the State where elected.

THE NUMBER OF REPRESENTA-TIVES SENT BY EACH STATE IS...

| | | 1 | L 13 |
|---|----------------|-----|-------------------|
| | Alabama | 9 | New Hamp- |
| - | Arizona | 2 | shire 2 |
| | Arkansas | 6 | New Jersey 14 |
| | California | 23 | New Mexico 2 |
| 1 | Colorado | 4 | New York 45 |
| | Connecticut | 6 | North Caro- |
| 1 | Delaware | - 7 | ling 12 |
| | Florida | 6 | North Dakota, 2 |
| | Georgia | 10 | Ohio 23 |
| | Georgia | ž | |
| П | Idaho | | Oklahoma 8 |
| | | 26 | Oregon 4 |
| | Indiana | 11 | Pennsylvania 33 |
| | lowa | 8 | Rhode Island 2 |
| | Kansas | 6 | South Carolina. 6 |
| | Kentucky | 9 | South Dakota 2 |
| | Louisiana | 8 | Tennessee 10 |
| | Maine | 3 | Texas 21 |
| | Maryland | 6 | Utah 2 |
| | Massachusetts. | 14 | Vermont 1 |
| | Michigan | 18 | Virginia 9 |
| | Minnesota | ĕ | Washington 6 |
| | Mississippi | ź | West Virginia. 6 |
| | IVIISSISSIPPI | | west virginia. O |
| | Missouri | 13 | Wisconsin 10 |
| | Montana | 2 | Wyoming 1 |
| | Nebraska | 4 | (Based on |
| | Nevada | 1 | 1940 Census) |
| | | | |

read in chapter 7. The Fathers of the Constitution also reasoned that if two separate groups, one representing the State governments and one representing the people, must both approve of every proposed law before it became effective there would be little danger of passing laws hurriedly and carelessly. One house could always check (put the brakes on) the other. The interest of the small States, so well represented in the Senate, could balance the interest of the larger States which would have so many more Members in the House of Representatives. This was a part of the "system of checks and balances," of which you will read more later on.

The Qualifications of Members of the Congress

We have told you that when the new States adopted constitutions before 1787, most of them required at least their Senators to be property owners. The Federal Constitution left to the States the authority to send to the Congress such United States Senators as the State legislatures might select, provided they were 30 years old at the time of their election, had been citizens of the United States for at least 9 years, and actually lived in the State which they were chosen to represent. (In other words. no newly naturalized immigrants could be chosen.) It authorized the voters of the States to elect as their Members in the House of Representatives only such of their inhabitants as were 25 years old when elected and had been citizens for 7 years. Other qualifications might be set by the States, but the Constitution makes each House of the Congress the judge of the qualifications of its own Memhers

THE PRESENT NUMBER OF MEMBERS OF THE CONGRESS

You have learned that each State is represented in the upper House of the Congress by two Senators. The State of Rhode Island, with an area of only 1,248 square miles, has the same share in the Senate's lawmaking as the State of Texas, which covers 265,941 square miles; the State of

Nevada, which had only 110,247 inhabitants by the last official count in 1940, has as many votes in the Senate as the State of New York, where a population of 13,479,142 was counted for the 1940 census. The 48 States, therefore,

have a right to be represented by 96 Senators.

In the House of Representatives, the number of Members is determined by the Congress. This number is then divided among the States according to their populations. A provision was included in the Constitution for the periodic enumeration of the people, so that the number of Representatives from each State could be changed as the population changed. In this way the share of each person in the Government is kept on as nearly equal a basis as possible, and the people of one State have no more voice in the affairs of government than do those of any other.

Although the population of the United States has increased at a very rapid rate, the number of Representatives has increased much more slowly. If there were now allotted a Representative for the same number of persons as in 1790, there would be over 4,000 Representatives in the

Congress.

There were 65 Representatives in the First Congress. The number from each State was determined by the Constitutional Convention. After the First Census the number of Representatives was increased to 106 and redistributed among the States. There has been a reapportionment, or redistribution, of Representatives every 10 years since then, except after the census of 1920. Although our population is more than 33 times greater than it was in 1790, the House of Representatives has consisted of 435 Members since 1910.

According to our present laws, the President must report to the Congress the populations of the States as determined by the census and the number of Representatives which should be assigned to each State for the same size of House. These assignments are computed by two different mathematical methods. The Congress then has 60 days within which to decide whether they wish to change the size of the House or to adopt a different method of assigning the Representatives. If no action is taken within the 60-day limit,

then a reapportionment of the same total number of Representatives by the method last used is automatically ordered by the Clerk of the House.

No matter what the size of the House is, or what method is used, the Constitution guarantees at least one Repre-

sentative to every State.

After it has been determined how many Representatives are to be sent to the Congress by each State, the State legislatures then decide how these Representatives are to be chosen. As a rule, the State is divided into districts as nearly equal in population as possible. There is a separate district for each Representative, and no part of the State is omitted from some district. The people of each district then elect a Representative, who speaks for them in Congress. (See Figure 46.)

However, there is no law at present which forces the States to divide into districts. In some States, therefore, no change has been made for many years. In other States there are fewer districts than there are Representatives. In such States the additional Representatives are then chosen by all of the people of the State and are called "Representatives at Large."

The Term of Office of United States Senators Is 6 Years

Senators are chosen at the national election held in November of each even-numbered year, but only one-third of them are elected at any one election. In this way the Senate can never be made up entirely of new Senators, but will always have at least a two-thirds majority of experienced members.

The Term of Office of Representatives Is 2 Years

Representatives also are elected in November of evennumbered years. However, in the case of the House of Representatives, the term of every Member comes to an end on the same day and each has to seek reelection (if he wants it) at each national election. Many Members are well enough liked in their districts to be reelected over and over again, so that even in the House of Representatives there is never an entirely new membership at any one time.

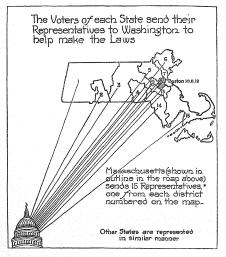


Figure 46
The Voters Send Representatives to Washington

*Under 1941 reapportionment based on the 1940 Census, Massachusetts is to have but 14 Representatives.

When and Where Does the Congress Meet?

Since Members of the House of Representatives are chosen every 2 years, the life of a Congress is considered to be 2 years. The Twentieth Amendment of the Constitution provides that the Congress shall meet in regular session at noon on January 3 of each year unless it shall pass a law to fix a different date. It meets in the Capitol at Washington, D. C. (See Figure 47.) It remains in session until its Members vote to adjourn. The President may call a special session whenever he thinks it is necessary.

HOW THE TWO HOUSES COMPARE IN POWER

Both Houses Have Equal Power in Some Things

- 1. Each House has power to start the consideration of any proposed law (except laws for raising *revenue*, which are discussed later in this chapter).
- Each House has power to vote for or against any proposed law which is sent to it for approval after being passed by the other House.

The Two Houses Do Not Have Equal Power in Other Things

Under the Constitution the Senate has the following powers which the House of Representatives does not have:

- The Senate has the power, by refusing its consent, to block the President's choice of officials to fill many important offices.
- The Senate must give its consent (by a favorable vote of two-thirds of the Senators present) to any treaty of the United States before such treaty can go into effect.
- 3. The Senate has "sole power to try all impeachments." The House of Representatives, however, has the sole right to impeach (that is, to bring charges of misconduct serious enough to justify dismissal against any civil officer of the United States—who shall then be tried before the Senate).

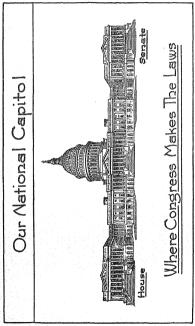


Figure 47 Our National Capital

On the other hand, the House of Representatives is given by the Constitution a very important and special money-raising power; which is, that all laws about raising revenue must be passed by the House before the Senate can act on them. As a result, in reaching the first decision as to the way in which necessary money shall be raised for the Federal Government, the large States have more votes than the small States. In actual practice, of course, the Senate may vote any number of amendments to a revenue bill which the House has passed. Then a "conference committee," made up of Members appointed from both houses, must work out some sort of a compromise satisfactory to both before the bill can become a law. However, the authority of the House of Representatives to originate revenue bills is a very important one and is one of the "checks and balances" of the Legislative Branch of our National Government.

SHMMARY

You have learned in this chapter how the Constitution of the United States set up a Legislative Branch called the Congress, and how it gave every State an equal representation in the United States Senate. You have learned how the House of Representatives has grown from a small group of 65 lawmakers to a very large group of 435. In allotting the 65 seats of the first House of Representatives among the 13 States, the Constitution provided that each Representative should represent not more than 30,000 people; but this country has grown so fast that today each Congressman represents about 300,000 people. Even so, the people of the United States still feel and know that the final authority belongs to them and that their Congressmen and Senators are their representatives and must answer to them for the welfare of the country.

In our next chapter we shall learn what kind of laws the Congress is authorized to make, and how it goes about its lawmaking duties.

| MAKE-UP OF OUR NATIONAL CONGRESS | | | | | |
|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| | House of Representatives | Senate | | | |
| Total member- ship. | 435. | 96. | | | |
| Number of mem- bers for each State. | According to popula- tion. | 2. | | | |
| Elected by | Voters of Congressional district. (For Con- gressman at Large, voters of entire State.) | Voters of entire State. | | | |
| Term of office | 2 years. | 6 years. | | | |
| Vacancy | Filled by special elec- tion or at next na- tional election. | Special election or tem- porary appointment by Governor until special or regular election. | | | |
| Salary | \$10,000 and allow- ances. | \$10,000 and allow- ances. | | | |
| Session (regular). | Meets January 3 of each year. | Meets January 3 of each year. | | | |
| Presiding officer | Speaker. | Vice President of the United States. | | | |
| Powers which each house exercises ex- clusively. | (1) To criginate revenue bills. (2) To impeach civil officers. (3) To elect a President if no candidate has a majority of the electoral votes. | (1) To consent or refuse to consent to treaties. (2) To try persons impeached. (3) To confirm or refuse to confirm appointments made by the President. (4) To elect a Vice resident if no candidate has a majority of the electroal votes. | | | |

Figure 48

Make-Up of Our National Congress

THINGS TO DO

Questions to discuss in your study group:

- Why did the Fathers of the Constitution decide that a bill should pass both houses before it could become a law?
- . 2. Why is it important that we elect able and qualified persons to the National Legislature?

| PCTBO | is to the rectonal negitianere. |
|--------|---|
| Furnis | th the missing information in the following outline: |
| | My name is |
| | The two United States Senators from my Stat are: |
| | (a) |
| | (b) |
| | My State is entitled to Representatives in the National House of Representatives. |
| | I live in Congressional District No |
| | The date on which we next elect our National Senators and Representatives is |
| | |

Select the word or phrase which will make each of the following statements read correctlu:

1. The main task of the Legislative Branch of our National Government is

to make the laws. to explain the laws.

2. The upper house of the National Legislature is called the

House of Representatives. Senate.

3. Each State elects $\frac{8}{2}$ members of the National Senate.

| 4. Senators and Representatives are chosen |
|---|
| by the direct vote of the people. |
| by the State courts. |
| 5. The required age for United States Senators is |
| higher than that for Members of the House of Repre- |

sentatives.
6. The number of Representatives each State is entitled to send to the House of Representatives depends upon the

area population of the State.

7. The Senators are elected to serve terms of $\frac{8}{6}$ years. Members of the House of Representatives are elected to serve terms of $\frac{2}{2}$ years.

- 8. Revenue bills must be introduced in the House of Representatives.

 Senate.
- 9. Before bills become laws they must be passed by both only one of the houses of the legislature.

Complete each of the following:

| 1. | Two qualifications rec | quired of Un | ited States S | enators |
|------|------------------------|--------------|---------------|---------|
| are: | | | | |
| | 1 | | | |
| | 9 | | | |

2. Two qualifications required of Representatives in the Congress are:

| 9 | 1 | | | |
|---|---|----------|------|--|
| n | | 7777 | | |
| | 9 | | | |

Some more words which the student should understand:

impeachments—accusations of wrong or error against government officials for their public acts. originate—take the first action on. revenue—the income of the government. vested—placed under the authority of.



CHAPTER 21

How Our National (Federal) Government Is Organized

THE LEGISLATIVE BRANCH (2)

"Each House may determine the rules of its proceedings."

-First Article of the Federal Constitution.

In our last chapter we discussed the organization of both Houses of the Congress and pointed out that all the States have equal representation in the Senate, but that in the House of Representatives the number of Members allotted to each State depends on the size of its population. While every State is guaranteed at least one Representative, no matter how small its population may be, yet in general the present allotment of membership of the House is about 1 Member to each 300,000 inhabitants of a State. You also learned that the two Houses of the Congress have almost the same authority in the making of laws, and that either House can begin the consideration of a new law (except a law to raise revenue) and, on the other hand, may refuse to pass a law on which the other House has already voted favorable.

It will now be interesting to consider what kind of laws the Congress has authority to make and how it operates to make such laws.

WHAT KIND OF LAWS MAY THE CONGRESS MAKE?

You will recall that the people, through the Constitution of the United States, delegated certain powers to the Federal Government. In doing so, however, it definitely listed 19 subjects on which the Congress might make laws and left all other lawmaking power to the States. The subjects,

as listed in the eighth section of the First Article of the Constitution, are very broad and important ones.

Among the powers delegated by the Constitution to the Congress are the following:

- 1. To lay and collect taxes.
- 2. To borrow money.
- 3. To make rules and regulations for commerce between the States and with foreign countries.
- To coin money, to state its value, to fix the standard of weights and measures, and to provide for the punishment of counterfeiting.
 - 5. To make a uniform rule about naturalization.
- To establish uniform laws for the whole country on the subject of bankruptcy.
 - 7. To establish post offices and post roads.
 - 8. To issue patents and copyrights.
- To set up a system of Federal courts having less power than the Supreme Court set up by the Constitution.
 - 10. To punish piracy.
 - 11. To declare war.
 - 12. To raise and support armies.
 - 13. To provide for a Navy.
- To make rules and regulations for the Army and Navy.
- 15. To provide for calling out the militia to enforce the Federal laws, to suppress lawlessness, or to repel invasion.
- 16. To cooperate with the States in organizing and arming the militia.
 - 17. To make all laws for the District of Columbia.
- 18. To make all laws needed to put into effect all the powers given by the Constitution to the Government of the United States or to any agency or officer of the United States.
- To make laws, rules and regulations about the territory and all property belonging to the United States.

Among the things which the Constitution does not allow the Congress to do are:

- 1. To suspend the writ of habeas corpus, except in time of rebellion or invasion.
- To pass laws which condemn persons of crimes or unlawful acts without a trial.
- 3. To pass any law which will declare to be criminal any act already done which was not criminal when it was done.
- 4. To lay direct taxes on citizens of States, except on the basis of a census already taken.
 - 5. To tax exports from any State.
- To give especially favorable treatment in commerce or taxation to the scaports of any State or to the vessels using such scaports.
 - 7. To authorize any titles of nobility.

WHO ARE THE PRESIDING OFFICERS AND LEADERS OF THE CONGRESS?

The Constitution provides that the Vice President shall be president of the Senate, but shall have no vote except in case of a tie. It also provides that the House of Representatives shall choose its own Speaker and other officers, and that the Senate shall choose a president pro tempore (to preside if the Vice President is absent) and other officers. The Speaker is always a member of the political party to which the largest group of Members of the House belong and has great influence both in the selection of Members for important committees and in conducting the business of the House.

The members of each political party represented in the Senate meet at the beginning of each new Congress and select a "floor leader" and appoint various Senators of their own party to help him; and the members of the political parties in the House do the same thing. These leaders are not selected in accordance with any law but according to the custom of each political group. But they do very important work in helping the passage of laws which their parties favor and the defeat of laws which their parties oppose. They have come to be important parts of the constitutional process of lawmaking.

HOW DOES THE CONGRESS MAKE THE LAWS?

It is easy for any of us to understand that 435 Members of the House of Representatives cannot possibly work well as a single group in deciding on the wording of some new law or in studying just what the effect of all its provisions will be. This is also true of the Senate with its 96 Members. For the careful work and study of preparing workable laws and determining that they do not cause confusion with the many thousand laws already in force, both Houses of the Congress have come to rely upon the work of smaller groups of their Members called committees.

Each house always arranges for a number of important committees. Among them are committees to consider such important subjects of lawmaking as Agriculture, Appropriations, Banking and Courency, Commerce, Finance, Foreign Relations, the Judiciary, Labor, Manufactures, Rules, and Military and Naval Affairs. In the House of Representatives there is a Committee on Immigration. The Senate has over 30 committees and the House of Representatives has more than 40. Each committee has a chairman who is usually one of the concress in length of service.

COMMITTEES OF CONGRESS

What do these committees do? Every bill introduced in either House by one of its Members is referred to one of these committees for study. Where do these bills come from? Some of them are drawn up by the committees themselves, or by special committees of the Congress, to meet special needs of the people. Some are suggested by the President or other executive officers to meet new executive needs or to improve old ways of doing things. Others are suggested to Members of the Congress by citizens or organizations; while still others represent the personal views of Congressmen themselves. But whenever a bill is introduced in either House, it is read by its title, given a number, and then referred by the Clerk of the House to the

proper committee. A bill to help the wheat growers, for example, would be referred to the Committee on Agriculture. If hearings are held by the committee, persons who favor or oppose the bill may appear and state their views. Sometimes the arguments for and against a bill at a committee hearing may last several weeks or months.

What may the committee do with the bill? The committee may (1) recommend it to the Congress just as it was introduced, (2) change it slightly, (3) rewrite it entirely, or (4) ignore it altogether. If the bill is ignored, the committee does not report it back to the House in which it was introduced, and usually it does not receive further consideration. However, it is possible for a majority of the Members of the House of Representatives, by signing a petition, to take a bill away from a committee and bring it before the House for action. In the Senate a committee can be discharged from consideration of a bill through a motion passed by a majority of the Senators present. This procedure is called "forcing a bill out of committee."

HOW BILLS ARE PASSED

What happens to a bill after it is reported back to the House in which it was introduced? After a committee reports a bill back to the House, the Members usually discuss it in open debate and then vote on it. In the House of Representatives, because of the large number of Members, the Rules Committee usually sets a time limit on the debate; but in the Senate the debate can usually go on as long as Senators have anything to say. If a bill is passed by one House, it is sent to the other House for action.

In the second House the bill goes through much the same procedure as in the first House. The second House may pass or defeat the bill. If the bill is passed by the second House with amendments, it must be returned to the House in which it was first introduced. If the first House refuses to agree to the changes, the bill may go to a "conference committee," on which each House is equally represented. If the conference committee can adjust the points of dif-

ference, the bill as agreed upon is presented to each House for its approval.

THE APPROVAL OF THE PRESIDENT

After a bill has been passed by both Houses it is sent to the President. The Constitution provides that "Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it become a law, be presented to the President of the United States..." The President may approve the entire bill or disapprove it. If the President has not signed the bill within 10 days after it reaches him (not counting Sundays), it becomes a law without his signature. However, if the Congress adjourns in the meantime, the bill does not become a law unless the President signs it within the 10-day limit. This way of preventing a bill from becoming a law is known as the "pocket veto."

If the President vetoes a bill while the Congress is in session, it does not become a law unless each House passes it over the President's veto by a two-thirds vote of its membership.

If the President signs the bill it is then sent to the Secretary of State to be given a number. Later the new law is published in the volumes of "Statutes at Large of the United States."

There are thousands of bills introduced at each session of the Congress. Only a small number of them become laws. We must depend on our lawmakers in the Congress to pass the kind of laws which the Nation needs. That is one reason why we should elect able and well-qualified men to represent us.

THE CONGRESS MAY MAKE INVESTIGATIONS

A very important practice of the Congress is that of making investigations. Either House may do this. Either House may use one of its regular committees or appoint a special committee to do this work. Sometimes the Houses appoint a "joint committee," consisting of Members from both Houses, to make an investigation. What is the purpose of such investigations? It may be to study certain conditions which seem to call for new laws. It may be to find out how the members of the Executive or Judicial Branch are doing their work. It may be to create interest on the part of the people in needed reforms. Sometimes the Congress goes beyond its own Members and employs experts or asks private citizens to supply information. These investigations help to keep the Congress in touch with the real needs of the people so that it can make the laws needed by them.

THE CONGRESS MUST REPRESENT MANY INTERESTS.

Every Member of the Congress is called upon to perform many services. He usually tries to follow the program of his political party, since he has been elected through a party organization. He is expected by those who elected him to work for the good of the people of his district and State, since they have selected him to represent them and have delegated to him his authority. And, since he is a member of the national lawmaking body, he is called upon to think of the welfare and needs of all the people of the entire Nation.

There are always special groups of people who represent some one single interest, and who eagerly present their needs and wishes to their Congressmen. But a national lawmaker must try to adjust group interests and make laws which will best serve the greatest possible number of people of the United States.

THINGS TO DO

Questions to discuss in your study group:

- 1. Why does the National Congress do so much of its work through committees?
- 2. Do you think it is important for Members of the Congress to keep in touch with the needs of the people of the Nation? Why?

1. Three subjects upon which the Congress may make

| Complete | each. | of the | follow | ina: |
|----------|-------|--------|--------|------|

| laws are: |
|--|
| (1) |
| (2) |
| (3) |
| 2. Two ways in which a committee may dispose of a bill which has been referred to it are: |
| (1) |
| (2) |
| 3. The Senate and House of Representatives have standing committees on such important affairs as: |
| (1) |
| (2) |
| 4. Two official actions which the President may take with regard to a bill, when he receives it, are: |
| (1) |
| (2) |
| Some more words which the student should understand: |
| appropriations—acts authorizing the Treasury Department to pay out money for special uses. by its title—by the short descriptive statement printed at the beginning of each bill. counterfeiting—making imitation money for the purpose of passing it as good money. |
| currency—money in use, either coin or paper money. debate—regulated presentation of arguments in public. direct taxes—taxes which must be paid by the taxpayer direct. discharged—freed. |

exports—articles shipped out of a country.

ignore—pay no attention to.

294529°—41——17

investigations—systematic inquiries.

viracy-robbery on the sea.

pro tempore—acting for a limited time during the absence of the regular officer.

rebellion—organized resistance of citizens against their government.

repel-drive or force back.

Speaker—the officer who presides over the House of Representatives.

suppress—put down by force.

suspend-interrupt, hinder the enforcing of,

arrit of habeas corpus—court order requiring that a person named shall be brought into court so that the judge may decide whether he is being unlawfully deprived of his liberty.



CHAPTER 22

How Our National (Federal) Government Is Organized

THE PRESIDENCY

"The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America."

—Second Article of the Federal Constitution.

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In the last two chapters we studied about the Legislative Branch of our Federal Government. We learned how it is organized and how it makes laws. But we can readily understand that no law can be of much value to a government group unless it is, and can be, put into effect and enforced. This is the duty of the Executive Branch of the Government. In this chapter we shall study how the Executive Branch is organized to do its work.

THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES

At the beginning of this chapter, you can read the first sentence of the Second Article of the Federal Constitution. It provides that the executive power is vested in (delegated to) a President. It does not give any executive power to a Vice President, or to members of a President's Cabinet, or to other officials. It gives the whole executive power to one official, the President of the United States.

Before the Constitution was adopted, some of the States had their executive power vested in councils of several officers, no one of whom had more power than the others. In the Constitutional Convention, Benjamin Franklin urged that this same arrangement be adopted. The delegates had before them an example in the Swiss Republic, which for many years had been extremely well governed (as it still is) by an executive council. The delegates could also easily remember the danger which the Colonies had hardly

survived through the too great power of the British King. Nevertheless, the delegates decided to give all the executive power to a single official, to be known as the President of the United States.

They also decided that a Vice President should be elected in the same way as the President, but should be given the sole duty of presiding over the Senate. In case of the removal of the President from office or of his death, resignation, or inability to use the powers or do the duties of his office, the Vice President was given the right and duty of taking his place. The Constitution gave the Congress the right to decide what other officer should become President if both the President and Vice President should die or withdraw. From Figure 49 you can learn how the Congress has decided this important question.

The President is in fact the head of a very large executive organization, including 10 Departments, each with a cabinet member at its head, and also many independent agencies. Through them he does his duty in enforcing the provisions of the Federal Constitution and the laws made by the Congress, and in conducting Government business in the interest of all the people. He is the real leader of this great Nation.

The President lives in Washington in an official residence called the White House. There he has his executive

offices as well as his home.

The Constitution provides that the President (1) must be a natural-born citizen of the United States, (2) must be at least 35 years old when he takes office and (3) must at that time have been a resident within the United States for at least 14 years. (See Figure 49.)

The President's term of office, as provided in the Constitution, is 4 years. The Constitution does not state how

many terms a President may serve.

How Is the President Nominated?

Candidates for the office of President are chosen at conventions held by the principal political parties. (Review

THE PRESIDENT

Term of office—4 years.

Salary-\$75.000 and allowances.

Election—November of every fourth year.

Inauguration-lanuary 20 following election.

Elected—By the people through the Electoral College.

Qualifications—Natural-born citizen at least 35 years old and at least 14 years a resident of the United States.

Succession to the office-

- Vice President.
- 2. Secretary of State.
- 3. Secretary of the Treasury,
- 4. Secretary of War.
 - 5. Attorney General.
 - Postmaster General.
- 7. Secretary of the Navy.

 8. Secretary of the Interior.
- Chief power and duty—To enforce the Constitution, the laws made by the Congress, and treaties.

Other powers-

- 1. To veto bills.
- 2. To recommend measures to the Congress.
- 3. To call special sessions of the Congress.
- 4. To deliver messages to the Congress.
- To appoint Federal judges.
- 6. To appoint representatives to foreign countries.
- To appoint heads of the Departments and other important officials.
- 8. To pardon criminals.
- 9. To carry on official business with foreign nations.
- 10. To be Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy.

Figure 49

chapter 12.) Each political party selects a city as the meeting place of its convention. It arranges to have its conventions meet in the early summer of the election year, and to have each of its State organizations send a group of delegates.

After the convention has elected its officers and committees and has adopted a platform of party principles, it is ready to nominate a candidate for President; and afterward one for Vice President. The chairman orders a roll call of the States. At this time the members of any State delegation, when the State's name is called, may nominate a candidate for President. After every State delegation has had an opportunity to offer the name of its candidate, all the delegates cast their votes for one or another of the nominees. The person thus chosen by the delegates becomes the party candidate for President to be voted on in the next November election.

How Is the President Elected?

Members of the Constitutional Convention at Philadelphia did not think it wise that the people should vote directly for a President. So they wrote into the Constitution an "indirect method" of electing the President.

At the November election the voters of each State select as many Presidential Electors as the combined number of Representatives and Senators which that State has in the Congress. These electors have been nominated by the political parties for the sole purpose of voting for their party's candidates for President and Vice President. The electors from all 48 States become a group known as the "Electoral College"; but the whole group never meets, since the Twelfth Amendment of the Constitution directs that the electors shall meet in their own States to cast their votes. In this way the Electoral College chooses the President and Vice President. Really, the electors in each State are bound to vote for the candidates who have received the greatest number of votes in their State.

THE PRESIDENT'S OATH OF OFFICE

On the 20th of January which follows his election in November, the President begins his official duties with a ceremony called the Inauguration. It is customary for him to go to the Capitol to take his oath of office, which is administered to him by the Chief Justice of the United States.

PRESIDENTIAL OATH OF OFFICE AS STATED IN THE CONSTITUTION

"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States."

The President usually makes an *inaugural address*, which is broadcast widely and is heard or read by millions of people throughout the Nation.

WHAT ARE THE GENERAL POWERS OF THE PRESIDENT?

The Constitution says that the executive power of our National Government shall be legally delegated to a President of the United States of America. All other executive officers are responsible to him and receive from him the right to do executive duties as his delegates. The President and the Vice President are the only officers elected by the vote of the whole people.

The office of President of the United States is one of the most important and powerful in the world. In the first place, he must "take care that the laws be faithfully executed" and must manage the tremendously large organization which carries on our National Government. To do this he is given not only the authority to operate the Executive Branch of the Government, but also important powers in legislative and judicial matters. In Figure 49 you will find a list of many of the chief powers and duties of the President.

What Are His Powers in Legislative Matters?

The President has the power to prevent any bill passed by the Congress from becoming a law, unless it is passed again, after his veto, by a favorable vote of two-thirds of the Members of each House. He may exert an influence on the Congress through his right to call it together in special session to consider and take action on any national problem which he considers important. In his annual and special messages to the Congress he may recommend that it shall pass laws which he believes the people need. And often in his public addresses he may advise the Congress indirectly.

The President, as the only officer (except the Vice President) elected by the whole people, is held responsible by the Nation for a general program to promote the welfare of the country. As head of his political party he may properly urge the members of his party in the Congress to support such a program,

What Are His Powers in Judicial Matters?

When vacancies occur, the President appoints Federal judges, including members of the Supreme Court of the United States. His appointments must, however, be confirmed by the United States Senate.

The President may grant a full or a conditional pardon to any person who has been convicted of breaking a Federal law, except in a case of impeachment. He may shorten the prison term or reduce the fine which has been imposed as punishment for a crime. He may delay an execution.

What Are His Executive Powers?

The executive powers of the President are so numerous that it is impossible to mention all of them.

The President enforces the Constitution, treaties with other countries, and the laws made by the Congress. In doing so, he has to issue many rules, regulations, and instructions which are called Excentive orders.

The Constitution provides that "the President shall be Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States." This provision gives the President great power in time of war or danger of war.

The President Has Authority to Deal With Foreign Countries

Foreign nations look upon our President and his Secretary of State as the representatives of the United States who are responsible for establishing and keeping up friendly relations with other countries. The Constitution gives him the power to make treaties, to appoint ambassadors, ministers, and consuls, and receive foreign ambassadors and other public ministers. Here are some of the ways in which he deals with foreign nations:

I. The President with his Secretary of State carries on all our official contacts with foreign governments.

The President, through the Department of State, arranges for the protection of our citizens when they travel abroad, and protects foreign persons traveling in this country.

3. The President appoints officials (ambassadors, ministers, and consuls) to represent the United States. These appointments must, however, be approved by the Senate.

4. The President receives the representatives sent to our country by foreign governments. Through this power it is possible for the President to recognize or refuse to recognize a new nation or a new government.

5. The President with the help of his Secretary of State makes treaties with other governments. But no treaty is binding on the United States until it has been approved by a two-thirds vote of the Senators present.

6. The President may make "executive agreements" with foreign governments on matters which do not require the approval of the Senate.

The President may order our military and naval forces to any part of the world.

The President Makes Many Appointments

We have mentioned the President's right to appoint Supreme Court justices, Federal judges, ambassadors, and ministers. He also chooses the heads of the 10 executive departments which carry on the principal business of the Government and appoints many other persons to important Federal positions. (See Figure 50.)

However, we must remember that thousands of workers in the Executive Departments are selected through the civil-service system. This method of appointment requires them to pass an examination showing their fitness for the positions which they are seeking.

| | | | THINGS TO DO |
|-----|-----|------|---|
| Ans | wer | "yes | or "no" to each of the following questions: |
| Yes | No. | 1. | Is it the President's principal duty to make laws? |
| | | 2. | Can the President be removed from office? |
| | | 3. | Are the candidates for the offices of President and Vice President nominated directly by |
| _ | _ | | the people? |
| | | 4. | Can a naturalized citizen become President of the United States? |
| | | 5. | Is the President's term of office fixed at 4 years by the Constitution? |
| | | 6. | Does the President have the authority to call special sessions of the Congress? |
| | | 7. | Does the President have to get the consent of the Senate to all his appointments? |
| П | П | 8. | Must every bill passed by both houses of the |
| | | | Congress be sent to the President to sign or veto? |
| | | 9. | Can the President pardon a person who has broken a State law? |
| | | 10. | Is the President Commander in Chief of the militia in peacetime? |
| | | 11. | Does the President have to share with anybody |

countries?

Executive Branch of Our National Government



The Executive Branch Enforces the Laws

1-The President

Qualifications: (I) Natural born citizen of the

United States.

(2) At least thirty five years of age when he takes office.

(3) At least fourteen years a resident of the United States.

2-The Vice President

Qualifications:
The same as required for the President.

3-The Cabinet Members Qualifications: None expressed in the law.

Duties:

To advise the President and to manage their respective departments properly.

Figure 50

The Executive Branch of Our National Government

Some more words which the student should understand:

administered—offered with official guidance.

cabinet member—member of a council of executive officers. ceremony—a formal program on a solemn or important public

occasion.

conditional—not absolute, but granted on certain clearly understood terms.

inaugural address—the speech which is made by the President when he has taken the oath of office.



CHAPTER 23

How Our National (Federal) Government Is Organized

THE EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENTS (1)

"Public office is a public trust."

—Charles Sumner.

×

You have just learned how the President of the United States is elected and what qualifications are required for this high office. You have studied some of his powers and duties. You found that his chief duty was to use his executive authority in enforcing the laws of the Congress and in managing the National Government. Naturally, he must have help in so great a task. Among his assistants are the heads of the 10 Executive Departments and other agencies. You will read about 6 of these Executive Departments in this chapter.

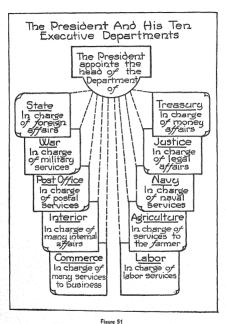
THE TEN EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENTS

To help the President enforce and administer the Federal laws, the Congress has created 10 Executive Departments. It has provided that the heads of these Departments shall be chosen by the President and approved by the Senate. (See Figure 51.) These 10 Department heads form a council called the "President's Cabinet."

George Washington appointed only 4 Cabinet members at the beginning of his first term as President. As the services of the Government have increased, new Departments have been authorized by the Congress, until now there are 10 of them. as follows:

THE EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENTS

| Dep | artment | Head of the Department creation | its by law |
|-----|----------|---------------------------------|---------------|
| 1. | State | The Secretary of State | 1789 |
| 2. | Treasury | The Secretary of the Treasury | 1789 |
| | | | OFO |



The President and His Ten Executive Departments

| 2 | Head of the Department Creation | of its |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|----------|
| Department | Head of the Department creation | r by law |
| 3. War | The Secretary of War | 1789 |
| 4. Justice | The Attorney General | 1789 |
| Post Office | The Postmaster General | 1794 |
| 6. Navy | The Secretary of the Navy | 1798 |
| 7. Interior | The Secretary of the Interior | 1849 |
| 8. Agriculture | The Secretary of Agriculture | 1889 |
| 9. Commerce | The Secretary of Commerce | 1 1903 |
| 10. Labor | The Secretary of Labor | 1913 |
| | | |

¹Department of Commerce and Labor created in 1903 and made into 2 separate departments in 1913.

THE CABINET

The 10 Cabinet members may hold office as long as they satisfy the President. Each Department head is responsible to the President, and the President is responsible to the country for each of them and the work of their Departments. The President may dismiss a Cabinet member at any time. A new President may choose to retain some of the experienced members of the previous Cabinet, but usually surrounds himself with advisers of his own choosing. He holds meetings of his Cabinet as often as he wishes. These meetings are not open to the public.

The Constitution makes no exact provision for a President's Cabinet. It provides that the President "may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the Executive Departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices," but it does not name the Departments nor describe their duties. The Cabinet is simply a council of advisors for the President, who are also heads of principal Departments, and this group or council has come to be generally accepted as part of our Government organization. The law fixes no special qualifications for Cabinet members.

Each Cabinet member has authority delegated to him by the President to manage his own Department. As an officer of the Federal Government, his duties extend to all parts of the country and he must have many assistants and advisers. His Department will be found divided into many divisions, bureaus, offices, or services, through which different parts of his work will be done. There are hundreds of these divisions in the 10 Executive Departments.

Let us consider the organization and chief objectives of each of the 10 Executive Departments.

THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE

The Secretary of State ranks as an executive officer next to the President and Vice President. He is the President's adviser on matters relating to foreign policy.

The general objectives of the Department of State are (1) to maintain friendly relations between the United States and foreign countries, as far as it is possible to do so, (2) to build up our foreign trade and commerce, and (3) to protect American citizens and their property abroad.

In carrying out these general objectives the Department

of State performs the following tasks:

 It supervises the Foreign Service of the United States, which includes our ambassadors, ministers, and consular officers, through whom the Department maintains the necessary contacts with foreign governments, and helps to protect American citizens and their interests abroad.

2. It aids in the making and enforcing of treaties and

other agreements with foreign countries,

 It issues passports to our citizens who wish to travel abroad.

4. It arranges for the reception by the President of for-

eign ambassadors and ministers.

5. It helps to decide whether a new foreign government should be recognized by the Government of the United States.

6. It gathers information about economic, political, and

social conditions in foreign countries.

7. The consular officers of the United States in foreign countries examine the applications of citizens of foreign countries wishing to come to the United States as immigrants or nonimmigrants and, if the applicants are found to be admissible under our immigration laws, the consuls issue them the right kind of *visas* (permission to enter).

In addition to these tasks, the State Department publishes all Federal laws, treaties between the United States and foreign governments, and certain other official papers.

THE DEPARTMENT OF THE TREASURY

The general objectives of the Department of the Treasury are (1) to manage the financial affairs of the United States Government effectively, (2) to plan for the protection and increase of the Government's income, and (3) to protect the buying power of American money and the borrowing power of the Federal Government.

Among the many tasks performed by the Department of the Treasury in carrying out these general objectives are the following:

- 1. It supervises the collection of taxes for the Government.
 - 2. It arranges to borrow money for the United States.
- 3. It supervises the payment of all bills and debts of the Government as directed by law.
- 4. It reports to both the Congress and the President on the financial condition of the Government.
- 5. It supervises the coining of money and the printing of paper money, bonds, and postage stamps.
- 6. Through the Coast Guard, it patrols the coasts to prevent smuggling of goods into the United States and to protect shipping.
- 7. It supervises the procurement and distribution of Government property and supplies.
- 8. It regulates the sale of alcohol and narcotics (habit-forming drugs) in interstate and foreign commerce,
 - 9. It operates the Secret Service.

THE DEPARTMENT OF WAR

The principal objective of the Department of War is to protect and defend our national safety. It also has control over a number of nonmilitary activities. Among the many services rendered by the Department of War are the following:

- It organizes, trains, and maintains the Army of the United States, which consists of the Regular Army, the National Guard while in the service of the United States, the Officers Reserve Corps, and other Reserve units.
- It constantly works on the development of improved weapons and equipment, including military aircraft.
- It helps to protect our coastlines, harbors, and borders in time of peace, and helps to defend the country in time of war.
- It is responsible for the defense and operation of the Panama Canal and for the government of the Canal Zone.
- It supervises the development of rivers and harbors and regulates the use of all navigable waters within the United States, Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico.
- 6. It aids in meeting flood-control problems and other emergencies.
- 7. It maintains the Military Academy at West Point and many schools for officers and enlisted men, including a Command and General Staff School, and the Army War College.

THE DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE

The Attorney General is the head of the Department of Justice, and as such, the chief law officer of the National Government. He represents the United States in legal matters generally, and gives advice and opinions when requested by the President or by the heads of the Executive Departments. He appears in the Supreme Court of the United States in cases of unusual importance. Frequently the services of the Department of Justice are used for the drawing up of new legislation, especially when it is about new and difficult problems.

The Solicitor General assists the Attorney General and acts under his direction. He appears for the Government in the Supreme Court of the United States. All appeal work in which the Government has an interest is under his

supervision. Any appeal to be made on behalf of the Government either to one of the circuit courts of appeals or to the Supreme Court of the United States must be authorized by him.

The Federal Bureau of Investigation is a branch of this Department. It has charge of investigating crimes against Federal laws and of finding and arresting the offenders.

The principal objectives of the Department of Justice are (1) to promote the most effective administration of Federal law, (2) to protect the legal rights of the United States, and (3) to cooperate with all law-enforcement agencies within this country.

Among the services rendered by the Department of Justice in carrying out these objectives are the following:

- It conducts suits in behalf of the Government in the Supreme Court of the United States and in other Federal courts.
- It supervises and has direction over United States district attorneys and marshals throughout the United States.
- 3. It investigates and prosecutes violations of the Federal laws.
- 4. It supervises Federal prisons and other penal institutions.
- 5. It investigates and reports to the President concerning petitions for paroles, reprieves, and pardons.
 - 6. It assists in drawing up rules of court procedure.
- It gives advisory opinions on legal questions when requested to do so by the President or heads of the Executive Departments.
- 8. It undertakes to protect the individual members of this Nation in the exercise of the civil rights guaranteed to them by the Constitution and laws of the United States.
- 9. It enforces the immigration and nationality laws of the United States.

THE POST OFFICE DEPARTMENT

The Postmaster General is the head of the Post Office Department. He is aided by a large number of assistants. The work of the Department is divided among various offices and divisions.

The principal objective of the Post Office Department is to maintain cheap and efficient ways of communication for all the people alike, through the carrying of letters, post cards, printed matter, and goods through the United States and to foreign countries. Among the services of the Post Office Department are the following:

- 1. It collects and delivers the mail throughout the United States, in cities, towns, and country districts.
- 2. It supervises the carrying of the mails by railways, steamships, airplanes, and other means of transportation.
 - 3. It operates post offices throughout the Nation.
- It supervises and inspects all post-office organizations and their operation throughout the United States.
- 5. It maintains such services for the public as postal savings, registered mails, parcel post, and money orders.
- The Postmaster General, with the approval of the President, makes postal agreements with foreign governments.

THE DEPARTMENT OF THE NAVY

The chief objective of the Department of the Navy is to maintain vessels of war for the defense of the United States. The Navy must be kept in readiness at all times to carry out any duties the President, as its Commander in Chief, may order. It is responsible also for the protection of our outlying possessions and our commerce.

Among the many services rendered by the Navy Department are the following:

1. It organizes, trains, and maintains the naval forces of the United States, constructing and equipping war vessels, navy yards, and naval bases.

2. It maintains the United States Naval Academy at Annapolis, Md., the Naval War College at Newport, R. I., and other schools for training officers and enlisted men; and conducts naval maneuvers and gunnery practice for promoting the efficiency of men and ships.

- It maintains an ever-ready Marine Corps for service on land or sea.
- 4. It maintains a system of radio communication between all ships at sea and naval shore stations, supplies maps and charts for the aid of navigation by sea and air, and operates research laboratories for the improvement of naval equipment.
- 5. Through its Naval Observatory it sets a standard of time throughout the country and checks the accuracy of all navigating instruments for ships and aircraft.
- It is responsible for the government of certain of our island possessions.

SUMMARY

We have described in this chapter the services done for the American people by six of the Executive Departments and in the next chapter we shall describe the work of the remaining four Departments and of a number of "independent agencies" of the Federal Government.

It is almost impossible for any citizen to remember all the different kinds of services which his Government does for him. From some of them he gets benefits about which he does not even know. Other services of the Federal Government are called to his attention every day—such as those of the Post Office. It is, therefore, a good thing for the student to read over these lists of the activities of the Executive Departments with careful attention—even though he may not fully understand the exact nature of some of them, for the descriptions will give him a good picture of the working of a government "of the people, by the people, and for the people."

THINGS TO DO

Complete each of the following:

- 1. The group made up of the heads of the 10 Executive Departments is known as the President's
- 2. Heads of the Executive Departments are appointed by the _____ and confirmed by the _____.

| 3. If you wish to get a passport to travel in foreign countries, you must apply to the Department of |
|---|
| 4. The Department which collects taxes and supervises the spending of public money is the Department of the |
| 5. The chief law officer of the Federal Government is the |
| 6. If you wish to get information about air mail or ocean mail you would inquire at the Department. |
| Try to think of some of the services which are being given to the people of your own community by the six Departments about which you have been studying. Perhaps you can name some of them below: Two of the services performed by the Department of State are: |
| 1 |
| 2 |
| Two of the services performed by the Department of the Treasury are: |
| |
| 2 |
| Two of the services performed by the Department of War are: |
| 1 |
| 2 |
| Two of the services performed by the Department of Justice are: |
| 1 |
| 9 |

| Two Departr | | | | s perfor | med | by | the | Post (| Office |
|----------------|------|------|---------|----------|-------|-----|-----|---------|--------|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | |
| 2 | | | | | | | | | |
| Two | of t | he s | ervices | perform | ed by | the | De | partmer | at of |

Navy are:

2

Some more words which the student should understand:

economic—related to the production, distribution, and use of wealth.

emergencies-sudden and unexpected dangers.

financial—related to money matters.

maneuvers-skillful and well-planned movements.

naval bases—fortified starting points from which war vessels may operate.

navigable—offering a passage for ships.

paroles—releases of prisoners on their word of honor to observe certain conditions.

passports—official documents issued by governments to their citizens when they wish to travel in foreign countries, showing the right of the persons named to travel safely under the protection of the government.

penal institutions—buildings or other places in which persons are imprisoned as a punishment for law-breaking.

reception—formal occasion on which a person or group officially greets or welcomes other persons.

reprieves—temporary delays in applying punishment.

research laboratories—properly equipped buildings or rooms in which careful study and experiments are made in order to discover new information.

visas—official permits for aliens to enter a country.



CHAPTER 24

How Our National (Federal) Government Is Organized

THE EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENTS (2)

The President . . may require the Opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices . . ."

-Section 2 of the Second Article of the

*

In the last chapter you studied the duties and services of 6 of the 10 Executive Departments of the Federal Government and discovered many ways in which they "promote the general welfare" of the United States. In this chapter we shall give the same consideration to the remaining 4 Departments and to some of the many other organizations that have been created by the laws of the Congress to serve the people.

THE DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR

The principal objective of the Department of the Interior is to protect and develop the *national resources* of the country, including both the wealth of nature and certain of our human resources, for the benefit of all the people.

Among the many services rendered by the Department of the Interior in carrying out this objective are the following:

1. It supervises the public lands of the United States, including range lands reserved for grazing.

It studies the natural resources and products of the United States and exercises some control over the production of oil, coal, natural gas, water power, minerals, and other products of the earth.

- 3. It supervises the study of irrigated (watered) lands and the water resources to be used on such lands, and directs the spending of money made available by the reclamation laws for construction and operation of irrigation projects.
- 4. It investigates the cause of accidents in mines and studies methods of preventing accidents and waste.
- 5. It supervises the health, welfare, and education of the Indian citizens of the United States.
- 6. It administers the Federal laws which regulate hunting and fishing (either as a business or for pleasure) and protects the Nation's fish, wild life, and wild fowl resources.
- It supervises the national parks of the United States, protects their natural beauty, and makes them available as playerounds for the American people.
- S. It is responsible for the administration of the government of Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands; and exercises certain powers relative to the Territories of Hawaii and Alaska, including the operation of the government railroad in Alaska.
- It administers and protects the public lands and domains of the United States.

THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

The principal objective of the Department of Agriculture is to help the farmer to raise good crops and sell them at a profit. In carrying out this general purpose, the Department renders many services, some of which affect all of our people. It also puts into effect the acts passed by the Congress in an effort to adjust the production of crops to the demand for them, so that there will not be great surpluses which cannot be sold or great shortages which raise food prices too high for the consumer.

Among the many services rendered by the Department

of Agriculture are the following:

 It encourages soil-building practices and crop rotation, in order to hold and increase the fertility of the Nation's farms.

2. It connerates to develop better livestock, to protect the Nation's supply of meat and dairy products.

3. It advises the farmer on problems of farm drainage. farm buildings, farm machinery, and water supplies.

4. It issues reports on the supply, movements, and prices of farm products, thus helping the farmer to sell his crops intelligently.

It fights animal and plant diseases and insect pests.

6 It maintains national forests and protects the timber

supply of the country.

7. It provides a complete and coordinated credit system for agriculture and also credit facilities for farmers' cooperative marketing, purchasing, and business service organizations.

8 It makes loans to finance the construction of rural

electric systems.

THE DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE

The principal objectives of the Department of Commerce are to promote and develop the foreign and domestic commerce of the United States, the mining, manufacturing, shipping, and fishing industries and the transportation facilities of the United States.

In carrying out these general objectives the Department of Commerce renders many services through the bureaus and agencies under its jurisdiction. Among them are the

following:

- 1. The Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce studies the production and distribution of goods and encourages and promotes commerce at home and abroad. It maintains 25 branch offices at important points in the United States as an aid in furnishing to businessmen the latest trade information.
- 2. The Bureau of Marine Inspection and Navigation inspects and issues permits for merchant vessels and licenses officers and crews so as to assure the safety of ships, passengers, and cargoes.

3. The Coast and Geodetic Survey conducts surveys and prepares charts of our seacoast and tidewater rivers and reports upon tides and currents to safeguard shipping.

4. The Bureau of the Census takes a population census of the country every 10 years. It is continuously engaged in gathering other statistics and taking censuses covering manufacturing and many other subjects.

The Patent Office grants special rights by issuance of patents for inventions and by registration of trade-marks,

prints, and labels.

6. The Bureau of Standards establishes and maintains official weights and measures, so that all people may be treated alike by merchants and manufacturers and protected against fraud. This Bureau also makes many tests to determine standard qualities of articles.

7. The Inland Waterways Corporation promotes and develops inland waterway transportation of the United States and operates Government-owned barge lines on the

Mississippi and Warrior Rivers.

 Through the Weather Bureau, it issues weather forecasts and storm, cold-wave, frost, forest-fire, and flood warnings.

9. The Civil Aeronautics Administration encourages and fosters the development of civil aeronautics and air commerce, and makes provision for the control and protection of air traffic moving in air commerce.

THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

The principal objectives of the Department of Labor are "to foster, promote, and develop the welfare of the wage earners of the United States, to improve their working conditions, and to advance their opportunities for profitable employment."

Among the services rendered by the Department of Labor in carrying out its general objectives are the following:

It collects information on the subject of labor, especially upon its relations with employers, the hours and wages of workers, and ways of promoting their welfare.

It helps to settle trade disputes between employers and workers in a peaceable manner.

3. It gathers and publishes information about children of all classes, especially on such subjects as causes of death among infants, the birth rate, care of small children. dangerous occupations, and employment.

4. It reports on all matters relating to the welfare of

women in industry.

5. It helps to set up better working conditions in all parts of the country, with reasonable protection for the health and safety of the workers.

6. It sets standards on hours, wages, and working conditions under which many kinds of Government supplies are manufactured.

7. It enforces legal limitations against low wages and long hours.

THE INDEPENDENT AGENCIES

Besides the 10 Executive Departments there are many other Government groups and agencies which have been given part of the duty of putting into effect the Federal laws. These are usually called Independent Agencies or Offices because they are not a part of the 10 Executive Departments and are not responsible to them. Some are organized as independent units because the work allotted to them by law is entirely different from the work of any of the Executive Departments; some are more like courts (established to explain and apply some special law or to find out and report on some special set of facts); some do a special kind of work for all of the Executive Departments.

To finish this chapter, we will name and give a short description of many independent agencies of our Federal Government. We do not suggest that any of our readers try to remember them all, but by reading the names and descriptions you will once more be impressed with the great number of services which a modern government must

do for its people in our complex present-day life.

THE CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION holds competitive examinations to guide the Government in choosing wellqualified workers for over 1,700 kinds of positions; these examinations are held in hundreds of convenient places throughout the United States. More and more Government positions are being placed under "Civil Service"—which means that the workers must prove their fitness by examination before getting a job, and afterward are protected from removal for any cause except failure to do their duty properly.

THE GENERAL ACCOUNTING OFFICE, headed by the Comptroller General of the United States, settles and adjusts, independently of the Executive Departments, all claims and demands by or against the Federal Government and all money accounts in which the Government is concerned. It also checks the ledger accounts of all Federal spending and collecting officers.

THE INTERSTATE COMMERCE COMMISSION regulates the rates, rules, and practices in interstate commerce by all common carriers" (such as railroads, ships, busses, trucks, pipe-lines for carrying oil); it also controls the ways in which common carriers raise money by selling stocks and bonds, and enforces laws for the safety of railroad and public motor equipment.

THE BOARD OF GOVERNORS OF THE FEDERAL RESERVE SYSTEM and the 12 Federal Reserve Banks, which are under the Board's supervision, carry out certain monetary powers of the Congress. They perform central banking functions and have other duties in the field of money and credit.

THE FEDERAL TRADE COMMISSION has the duty of investigating and preventing trade abuses and unfair ways of doing business.

THE UNITED STATES BOARD OF TAX APPEALS has 16 members, who hold hearings and decide cases which are appealed by taxpayers on questions involving income tax, profits tax, estate taxes, and gift taxes.

THE VETERANS' ADMINISTRATION is responsible for building and managing hospitals for disabled veterans and for many forms of relief and aid to war veterans and their widows and dependents. It administers all pensions, warrisk insurance, National service life insurance, adjusted compensation, and other money benefits for veterans.

THE FEDERAL DEPOSIT INSURANCE CORPORATION insures the money deposited in most of the banks in the United

States. Each depositor's account is protected to a maximum of \$5,000. To preserve its assets and to aid mergers, the corporation is empowered by law to act as receiver for most insured banks which close and to make loans to prevent bank closings.

THE SECURITIES AND EXCHANGE COMMISSION is established to protect investors who buy stocks and bonds. The laws which it administers require companies which plan to raise money by selling their own securities (stocks and bonds) to file with the Commission true information about the securities and the company. The Commission is authorized to prevent or punish fraud in selling securities. The Commission is also authorized to regulate stock exchanges. where stocks and bonds are sold, and to prevent fraudulent practices by purchasers and dealers who are in the business of buying and selling stocks and bonds.

THE NATIONAL LABOR RELATIONS BOARD enforces the law which requires that employers must bargain collectively about wages, work hours, and labor conditions with organizations and representatives chosen by the workers themselves, and also conducts secret ballot elections to choose

those representatives.

THE UNITED STATES MARITIME COMMISSION is responsible for developing and maintaining a strong fleet of merchant ships for the United States and for promoting in all possible ways the commerce of this country which is carried in ships. In times of war, merchant ships are needed for national defense.

THE FEDERAL LOAN AGENCY, in which are grouped the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, the Federal Housing Administration, the Federal Home Loan Bank Board, the Home Owners' Loan Corporation, the Export-Import Bank of Washington, and several other Government lending agencies, is a supervising unit controlling these large and important Government organizations set up to finance many lines of business which may give increased employment to American workers. The agencies named above are authorized by law to lend Government money, under safe conditions, to banks, railroads, insurance companies, business enterprises, local governments, farmers and stockmen,

building contractors, home owners and home builders, merchants, exporters and importers, and foreign organizations buying American goods.

THE FEDERAL WORKS AGENCY is a supervising unit responsible mainly for construction work of many kinds in the United States. It does its work through—

- (1) The Public Buildings Administration, which has charge of the building and upkeep of all public buildings belonging to the Government.
- (2) The Public Roads Administration, which plans, builds and maintains many of the roads and highways of the country.
- (3) The United States Housing Authority, which clears slums, and builds modern, well-built, low-cost homes either separate houses or apartment buildings—which it rents to people of small income.
- (4) The Public Works Administration, which encourages the construction of all kinds of "public works"—roads, bridges, schools, public buildings, dams, park improvements, water and sewage systems, etc.—by State, county, city, and other government units by examining and approving their plans and arranging for grants of money from the Federal Government to cover part of the cost; in giving this financial help, it often cooperates with the Federal Loan Agency. It also tries to make the American people interested in planning public works for the future; and uses its best efforts to create additional employment for American workmen.
- (5) The Work Projects Administration, which cooperates with State and local governments to carry on needed work of all kinds, in order to give employment at reasonable pay to men and women who are on the relief rolls. It allots money to States and government units, according to their need, for all sorts of small projects, such as repairing roads, streets, and public buildings, extending water systems, leveling ground for parks and airports, copying and correcting public records—in short, any sort of work which combines public usefulness with a considerable amount of individual employment.

THE FEDERAL SECURITY AGENCY is a supervising unit which directs the work of the following welfare organizations:

- (1) The Civilian Conservation Corps, which assists young men who are in need of employment, by assigning them to such outdoor work as preventing forest fires, building dams to prevent floods and erosion (the washing away of soil), fighting plant diseases and insect pests, replanting forests, and improving parks. It provides these young men with food, clothing, shelter in C. C. C. camps, and a cash allowance. All the work they do has as its objective the conservation of the national resources of the United States.
- (2) The National Youth Administration, which gives part-time employment to young people who are out of school and cannot find jobs, on useful projects which will train them and help them to get private employment; it also helps boys and girls to work their way through school and college. Young men in the N. Y. A. build youth centers, training shops, school bus shelters, swimming pools, and other useful improvements; they work on farms and in shops. Young women act as recreational leaders, serve in understaffed hospitals and government agencies, make clothes, help in schools, and work on art and handicroft projects. These are a few examples of the useful work and training being done.
- (3) The Office of Education, which carries on special investigations and studies of educational problems in the United States and abroad and distributes many valuable reports and bulletins giving advice to local and State school officials as to new improvements in the ways of conducting schools and educating people. It arranges for the payments of money by the Federal Government to help State governments which will cooperate in improving school methods.
- (4) The United States Public Health Service, which conducts many hospitals, enforces many health laws and quarantine regulations, combats contagious diseases, regu-

lates the sale of viruses and serums, examines the health of all aliens applying for admission to this country, investigates the causes and cure of diseases and infections, publishes many valuable reports and bulletins, and does many other services to protect and promote the good health of the Nation.

- (5) The Social Security Board, which provides old-age insurance for workers in commerce and industry; and helps the States to provide unemployment compensation for wage earners, and public assistance for the needy aged, the needy blind, and dependent children. It makes monthly payment to insured wage earners when they stop work at the age of 65 or later, or to their widows or dependent children or parents. It also pays part of the cost incurred by the State in paying weekly unemployment compensation.
- (6) The Food and Drug Administration examines and passes upon many classes of foods and drugs to protect the people from impure and dangerous articles.

We have briefly mentioned above some of the most important independent agencies of the Federal Government. Your class may find it worth while to discuss the services which they render to the people of the United States and to find out more about them. Also, learn the names and objectives of other Federal agencies. A list of all such agencies and the duties of most of them will be found in the very interesting and valuable Congressional Directory, a copy of which your class leader can procure (for \$1) from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

THINGS TO DO

Complete each of the following:

1. If you were interested in getting information about the American Indians, you would write to the Department of the ______

| 2. The Department which keeps us informed about the weather is the Department of |
|--|
| 3. If a farmer wanted information about soil, plants, or animals, he could get help from the Department of |
| 4. A United States census is taken every 10 years by the Department of |
| 5. The Department which enforces the immigration and naturalization laws of the United States is the Department of |
| Try to think of some of the services which are being given to the people of your own community by the four Departments which we have been studying. Perhaps you can name some of them below: Two of the services performed by the Department of the Interior are: |
| 1 |
| 2 |
| Two of the services performed by the Department of Agriculture are: |
| 1 |
| 2 |
| Two of the services performed by the Department of Commerce are: |
| 1 |
| 2 |
| |
| Two of the services performed by the Department of Labor are: |
| 1 |
| |

Some more words which the student should understand:

bulletins—official reports issued for the information of the public. collectively—through representatives authorized to make bargains that will bind the whole group.

common carriers—conveyances, such as railroads, autos, busses, or ships, that carry goods or people as a business.

compensation—that which is given in place of something else or to make good a loss.

competitive—in which one's work is compared with other people's and one is required to do as well or better than others,

conservation-protection from waste or damage.

construction work-any kind of building.

crop rotation—the planting of different kinds of crops on a piece of land each year to prevent taking out of the soil certain values and wearing out the land.

domains—large stretches of land belonging to one owner, usually the Government.

equipment—supplies or materials needed to carry on a particular service.

exchanges—a special name for the markets where stocks and bonds are bought and sold.

facilities—ways of doing things easily; good equipment and arrangement.

fertility-ability to reproduce or grow things in plenty.

foster-encourage and support.

handicraft-skilled work with the hands.

interstate—carried on across State boundaries, from one State to another.

investors—persons who use their money to buy stocks and bonds.
livestock—farm animals, such as cattle, sheep, swine, and horses,
national resources—natural wealth and human energy which can be made useful to the Nation.

production-the act of making or growing.

range lands—open unfenced areas on which cattle, sheep, or horses may graze.

receiver—a business manager appointed by a law court to straighten out a business which cannot pay its debts.

reclamation—bringing something, such as land, back to use or production.

serums-liquids used in curing diseases.

shortages—amounts which fall short of what is expected or needed.

shums—poverty-stricken neighborhoods full of old battered buildings. statistics—a study of any subject by the use of numbers.
stocks and bonds—documents which show that a person is a part-

owner or a creditor of a corporation.

surpluses-amounts which are greater than what is expected or needed,

viruses—poisons which cause contagious diseases and can be used in curing them.



CHAPTER 25

How Our National (Federal) Government Is Organized

THE JUDICIAL BRANCH

"The judicial power of the United States, shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish."

-Third Article of the Federal Constitution.

*

In the last few chapters you have studied two of the great branches of our Federal Government. You learned that the Legislative Branch is made up of two houses, a Senate and a House of Representatives, which together are called the Congress of the United States. You learned that the Executive Branch includes the President, the Vice President, the 10 Executive Departments, and independent agencies.

A third branch of our Federal Government, the Judicial Branch, is made up of our Federal courts and has the duty of explaining and interpreting the Federal laws, settling lawsuits between citizens of different States and punishing certain kinds of lawbreaking. In this chapter you will study its oreanization and work.

*

WHAT DOES THE JUDICIAL BRANCH OF OUR FEDERAL GOVERN-MENT DO?

You have learned that the Congress makes the laws, and the National Executive enforces them. But sometimes the meaning of a Federal law is not clear, and that law cannot be enforced in some cases until it is better explained. Then the Judicial Branch comes to the aid of the other two branches.

In addition to explaining and interpreting the laws passed by the Congress, there are many other things which our Federal courts do. They explain the meaning of the Constitution. Since the Constitution is the highest law of our land, this is a very important task. These courts also explain treaties and agreements with other governments.

When any person is accused of breaking a Federal law, he is brought for trial to one of our Federal courts to decide whether he has really broken the law or not. Such a decision calls for a study and decision by the court as to what are the actual facts of the case and how the law, in its true meaning, applies to the facts as proved. This is the way in which the principle of "equal justice for all" is made to work.

The States need the Federal courts, to which they can take their disputes with one another. And if a citizen of one State has a legal dispute with a citizen of another State, he may go to a Federal court to settle it.

You will recall that the Constitution gives the Legislative and Executive branches of the Federal Government a great many difficult duties to perform. The courts act as a check on both branches in deciding whether one or the other has tried to use more authority than it was actually given by the people in the Federal Constitution.

You will recall also that the Constitution gives certain powers to the Federal Government and reserves other powers for the States. The Federal Judiciary is needed at times to decide when either the National or the State Governments have taken more power than they should, according to the Constitution.

To sum up, let us make a list of some of the valuable services performed by the Judicial Branch of the National Government. Among other things our Federal courts—

- Explain the meaning of the Constitution and the laws and treaties.
- 2. Settle legal disputes between citizens of different States.
- Settle legal disagreements between two or more States.
- 4. Settle legal questions between States and the National Government.

Give those persons accused of breaking Federal laws a fair and just trial.

 Settle disagreements, under certain circumstances, between States and foreign governments or citizens of foreign governments.

You can see that the chief objective of the Federal court system is to provide a way in which persons and groups can settle their disputes in a peaceful way. We do not believe in settling our legal differences by violent methods,

THE SUPREME COURT

If you read the quotation at the beginning of this chapter, you will see that the Supreme Court of the United States is the only Federal court set up by the Constitution itself. It could not be abolished without amending the Constitution. Let us learn more about it.

The Supreme Court is the highest court in the Nation. When it makes a decision there is no other court to which the case can be taken on appeal. Its decisions are final.

Although the Congress did not create the Supreme Court, it has the power to pass various laws about its organization and work. The Congress decides from time to time how many justices the Court shall have and what their salaries shall be. The President's choice of persons to become Supreme Court justices (when vacancies have occurred) must be approved by the Senate. Within certain limits, the Congress may decide what cases shall be tried in the Supreme Court. The Congress cannot, however, change the powers given to the Supreme Court by the Constitution itself.

OTHER FEDERAL COURTS

The Constitution leaves to the Congress much authority over the other Federal courts. The Fathers of the Constitution did not write the details of our court system into the Constitution. They left much of this to the Congress. It can decide when to establish more Federal courts and judgeships, and what cases each kind of Federal court shall hear. It can even change or abolish any Federal court except the Supreme Court.

The Congress has established two kinds of Federal courts (besides special courts). These are (1) the "District Courts" and (2) the "Circuit Courts of Appeals." Turn to Figure 52, which shows the relationship of these and other Federal courts.

These lower Federal courts keep the work of the Supreme Court from becoming too heavy. The Congress has passed laws which require that most litigation (trial of cases) in the Federal courts shall start in the District Courts. If persons in certain kinds of cases are not satisfied with the District Court's decision, they can appeal to a higher Federal court. Sometimes such cases can be taken directly to the Supreme Court; sometimes they must be appealed to the Circuit Court of Appeals. In some cases the decision of the Circuit Court of Appeals is final.

Our Nation is divided into 10 judicial circuits. In each of these circuits there is one Circuit Court of Appeals and several District Courts. There is also the United States Court of Appeals for the District of Columbia, and the District of Columbia is regarded as a judicial circuit. Every person in the United States can be sure that there is a Federal court in his section of the country, no matter where he lives.

The Supreme Court holds its sessions in Washington, the National Capital. For many years it met in a small courtroom in the Capitol. In 1935 it moved into a building of its own, which is one of the most beautiful in Washington.

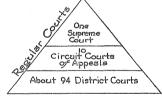
The Congress has established various special courts, You will notice in Figure 52 that we have certain other Federal courts besides those already mentioned. In 1855 the Congress established a special "Court of Claims." Before this date there had been no court to which a person could present a money claim against the United States Government. The Congress has also set up a "United States Customs Court," which settles disputes about the amount of any customs tax on goods being brought into

Judicial Branch of Our National Government

The Courts Explain the Laws



The Supreme Court is the Highest Court in the Land



Special Courts
One Court One Court One Court
Claims (1926) Customs (1926) Customs (1926) Courts (1926) Courts

"Equal Justice Under Law"

Figure 52
The Judicial Branch of Our National Government

this country; and a "United States Court of Customs and Patent Appeals," which is an appeal court for customs cases as well as cases in which a person who has been refused a patent on some invention argues that the Department of Commerce has treated him unfairly by its refusal.

OUR FEDERAL JUDGES

Federal judges are appointed by the President and approved by the Senate. They hold office as long as they do their work satisfactorily. If one of them commits a serious offense while in office, he may be impeached by the House of Representatives in the same way that the President and any other civil officer of the United States may be impeached. The Congress decides the amount of pay which Federal judges shall receive, but the Constitution provides that the salary of judges "shall not be diminished during their continuance in office."

For more than 70 years the Supreme Court of the United States has consisted of a Chief Justice and eight Associate Justices. The Chief Justice acts as presiding officer of the Court and all the justices sit as a group (unless excused for some good reason). All decisions of the Court are reached by a majority vote of the justices who have taken part in the hearings.

All of our Federal judges are required to uphold the Constitution of the United States. After a new Federal judge is appointed, he must take the following oath:

"I, ———, do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will administer justice without respect to persons, and do equal right to the poor and to the rich, and that I will faithfully and impartially discharge and perform all the duties incumbent upon me as ———, according to the best of my abilities and understanding, agreeably to the Constitution and laws of the United States: So help me God."

THINGS TO DO

- Select the words which will make each of the following statements read correctly:
- 1. The Judicial Branch of our Government-
 - 1. makes the laws.
 - 2. explains the laws.
 - 3. enforces the laws.
- 2. The chief objective of our court system is to give the people a way to—
 - 1. change the laws.
 - 2. collect taxes.
 - 3. provide equal justice for all.
 - 3. Federal judges hold office-
 - 1. during good behavior.
 - 2. for five years.
 - 3. for one year.
- 4. The one court which cannot be abolished without amending our Constitution is—
 - 1. the Court of Claims.
 - 2. the Supreme Court of the United States.
 - the United States Customs Court.
 - The Federal judges are selected by—
 - 1. the voters.
 - 2. the House of Representatives.
 - 3. the President.
- 6. When Federal judges are chosen, their appointments must be approved by
 - 1. the United States Senate.
 - 2. the people.
 - 3. the newspapers.
- 7. The presiding officer of the Supreme Court of the United States is called—
 - 1. the Chief Justice of the United States.
 - 2. the Chancellor.
 - 3. the Moderator.

- 8. On the Supreme Court of the United States there are—
 - 1. ten justices.
 - 2. one Chief Justice and nine Associate Justices.
 - 3. one Chief Justice and eight Associate Justices.
- 9. To establish our lower Federal courts, the Constitution gave authority to—
 - 1. the President.
 - 2. the Congress.
 - 3. the States.

Complete each of the following:

- 1. Two things which the justices of the Supreme Court promise to do when they take their oath of office are:
 - 2
- 2. Two kinds of Federal courts established by the Congress are:

 - 3. Two reasons why we need Federal courts are:
 -)______

Some more words which the student should understand:

diminished-reduced in amount, made less.

discharge—complete, finish, carry out.
impartially—fairly, justly, without taking sides.
incumbent—which are laid.
lkigation—the act of carrying on a suit in a law court.
ordain—give a formal order for.

Chapter 26

How We Pay For Our Government

"Our government units represent the people. Through the payment of taxes the people help pay for the services of their governments."

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We have learned that our government is divided into many units or groups, such as the town, the city, the county, the State, and the Nation. Each of these groups is made up of human beings, who have set up a government and given it authority both to govern and to serve them. The people naturally expect to pay for government services just as they do for services supplied by private citizens. Since the government does so many services, the cost of government often seems high. Let us consider, in this chapter, the cost of government services.

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Each of the government groups must be supported by the people who are its members. The people support their governments by paying taxes. And, of course, all money paid as taxes should be used for public purposes.

WE WOULD NOT WANT TO LIVE IN A COMMUNITY WHERE THERE WAS NONE OF THE SERVICES WHICH WE GET FOR OUR TAXES

Let us see what kind of a place it would be. We would find that among other things:

- 1. Our property would not be protected by law.
- 2. There would be no public schools for our children.
- 3. There would be no public-school classes for grown-ups or special free schools for teachers.
- Our health might not be well protected against contagious diseases.
- 5. Our food would not be inspected, and we would not have expert advice as to whether it was fit to eat.

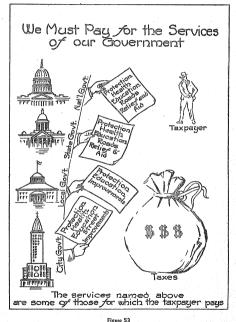
- 6. Our water supply might not be kept pure and drinkable.
- 7. There might not be enough water to use in our houses or to fight fire.
 - 8. Garbage might not be removed promptly.
- 9. Sewage and rubbish might not be disposed of satisfactorily.
 - 10. There would be no policemen to preserve the peace.
 - 11. There would be no jails for criminals.
 - There would be no courts.
- 13. There would be no money to build roads, bridges, airports, and to make other improvements.
- 14. There would be no public playgrounds or public parks.
- 15. There would be no public money to help care for those who are out of work or sick.
- 16. There would be no public money to take care of old people.
- 17. We would be less safe in traveling from place to place.

Would we want to live in such a place? Our families would have few of the chances of comfort and happiness which they now have. How much better it is to pay for the services which we need. We could not possibly, all by ourselves, get our families all of these advantages. Therefore, we pay our share of the cost with our tax money and let our government agencies serve us. (See Figures 8 and 53.)

HOW DO OUR GOVERNMENTS MANAGE THEIR MANY AFFAIRS?

Our Nation, most of our States, and many of our cities now have budget systems. Any budget system is a list of needs for which money must be spent, an estimate of how much each need will cost and another estimate as to where the money is coming from. When the amount of money which can surely be counted on is as great as the amount which must be spent, the budget is said to be balanced.

In most States the governor plans the budget. In some



We Must Pay for the Services of Our Government

cases there is a board or commission in charge of this important work. After the budget is planned, it is submitted to the State legislature, which must approve it before it becomes effective. In a county the county board usually plans the budget. In a city, as a rule, the mayor, the city manager, or a special board has the duty of preparing the budget.

The Federal Government, the greatest business concern in the Nation, also has its budget. Like all other businesses, it must plan how to meet its bills. The President, with the help of the Director of the Bureau of the Budget, figures out what the expenses of the Government are likely to be for the coming year. Then he suggests how the money can be raised to meet these expenses. When the plan is completed, it is sent to the Congress, which must approve or reject these proposed expenditures and the proposed ways of raising the money to meet them. For the Congress has the full authority to decide how money shall be raised and spent by the Federal Government. The President and the Executive Departments cannot spend any money unless they are authorized by the Congress to do so.

WHERE DOES THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT GET ITS MONEY?

There are a number of ways in which the Government of the United States gets the money which it needs to pay the cost of its services to the people. We cannot study all of them, but some of the most important are indicated below.

(1) A great deal of the Government's income comes from taxes on the incomes of persons and business organizations. A person's income is the money which he receives in any year as salary, wages, fees, profits, interest, dividends, or rent. Most companies' incomes are received as profits from selling things, or fees for services, or interest on money loaned, or rents collected. The Federal Government permits payers of income tax to make deductions for various expenses which they have paid out, and then col-

lects a tax on the amount of income left over to be spent on themselves (which it calls their "net taxable income"). A person or company with a large taxable income has to pay at a higher tax rate than one with a small income. Persons with very small incomes do not have to pay any tax. A man who is supporting a wife and children does not have to pay as large an income tax as another man who has the same income but who has no family or dependents to support.

(2) The Government collects large amounts of money as inheritance tax. This is a tax charged against persons who receive money or property from the estates of relatives or friends who have died. It also collects a tax on any large gifts of money or property which living people

give to one another.

(3) Large amounts of money come to the Government from taxes on the manufacture and sale of liquors, cigarettes, tobaceo, matches, chewing gum, playing cards, firearms, cosmetics, and drugs; also on food, such as eertal kinds of butter and cheese; also on the sale of gasolime.

(4) By the operation of the tariff laws, the Government collects customs duties (a kind of tax) on many different kinds of goods which are brought into the United States

from foreign countries.

(5) People have to pay a tax on such things as the transfer of stocks and bonds, and on theater tickets and club dues.

(6) Business corporations have to pay a tax on the value

of their capital stock.

(7) To pay part of the cost of Social Security Insurance (money set aside by the Government to pay special benefits to (1) wage earners who have retired from employment because of old age or disablement; or (2) wage earners who are unemployed; or (3) the widows or children of wage earners who have died), the Government charges a tax against pay rolls of employers in many industries.

(8) The sale of Government property also brings some

money to the Government.

(9) The Federal Government receives the tolls paid by ships passing through the Panama Canal.

(10) Sometimes sums of money are paid to our Govern-

ment by foreign governments who owe us money.

These are not all of the sources from which our Federal Government gets its funds. But they give us an idea of its sources of revenue. You will recall that the Treasury Department is in charge of receiving and paying out the Government's money, and must report all such transactions to the Congress.

WHERE DO THE STATES GET THEIR MONEY?

Like the National Government, the State Governments receive funds from a number of sources.

(1) Many of the States require persons living within their borders to pay an income tax. This tax is like the

Federal income tax which we have just described.

- (2) A State property tax is another way by which many States raise money. This is a tax against the value of land and buildings, and of furniture, equipment, and other forms of wealth. If you turn back to page 182 you may read how these property taxes are determined and collected.
- (3) Nearly all of the States collect an inheritance tax against the property of their own people when they die. Because the State does many services to protect the property of dead persons and to help in passing it on to their legal heirs, its laws often assess high taxes against large estates.
- (4) Some of the States have a business tax (sometimes called corporation tax). This is a tax on the earnings of business concerns.
- (5) A very general form of State tax is known as a franchise tax and is charged against private companies such as railroads, streetcar and bus companies, electric and gas companies whose business requires that they shall use public highways or other public property.

(6) Every one who travels in an automobile knows that

there is a gasoline tax collected by each State. You will remember that there is also a Federal tax on gasoline. So we pay both State and Federal taxes when we "get a fill of gas."

(7) Nearly all States collect license fees from owners and operators of automobiles, trucks, busses, and motorcycles. They also charge license fees for the right to sell liquor, eigarettes, tobacco, and other articles. Sometimes they charge a tax on theater tickets and other luxuries.

(8) Some money comes to the State as fees for recording legal documents, such as mortgages and deeds. A small charge is made for these services. Fees (sometimes called tolls) are collected at some docks, canals, bridges, and ferries which are operated by the State governments.

(9) Every State collects fines, which are sums of money assessed by law courts against persons convicted of breaking the law.

(10) Some States collect a small poll tax (sometimes called a head tax) from all those qualified to vote in the State.

(11) Many of the States collect a sales tax. This is a small amount paid on almost everything sold in the State. It is usually paid by the buyer as part of the price of an article, but the seller is held responsible for paying it to the State.

(12) Sometimes there is a tax called a special assessment. This is charged against land and buildings to help pay for paving, sewers, or other improvements which will increase the value of such land and buildings.

(13) The State may receive money from the Federal Government to be spent for agreed purposes, such as roads, bridges, and certain other improvements; or for grants-inaid.

WHERE DO THE LOCAL GOVERNMENTS GET THEIR MONEY?

You have learned that the county, town, and city governments perform many services for us. They must have

money with which to do these things. Some sources of their money are:

- (1) General property taxes charged against property (land, buildings, furniture, machinery, etc.). This tax is often shared by the local government and the State.
- (2) Licenses (permits) to automobile drivers, hunters, fishermen, dog owners and others; also marriage licenses.
- (3) Licenses to sell liquor, cigarettes, or other articles, or to operate places of amusement.
- (4) Franchises to private business companies, such as street-railway companies, telephone and telegraph companies, and gas, water, and electric companies which use the streets and alleys.
- (5) Taxes on the earnings of local public-service corporations, such as waterworks, electric-light companies, gas companies, etc.
 - (6) Fines collected from those who break the law.
- (7) Grants from the State government for education, road building, etc.
- (8) Special taxes (often called assessments) from those who will receive some special benefit from a public improvement,

Everybody is really paying taxes in one way or another, either directly or indirectly. A person who rents rooms in a landlord's house is really helping to pay a land tax. If there were no land tax, the landlord could get along with lower rent. The wage earner in an industry which must carry old-age or unemployment insurance under the social-security laws might have a higher wage if money were not being set aside, through a pay-roll tax, for his protection. When we buy at stores, we find in some States that we have to pay a sales tax; but in all States we are helping, by the price we pay, to supply the earnings on which the storekeeper must pay income and other tax. Therefore, all the people of the country are indirectly taxpayers and are paying for the services of their Government. They should be interested in knowing whether tax money is wisely spent by the Government.

WORK PROJECT

Talk with your neighbors about the kind of taxes paid by the people of your community. Try to decide whether they are local (county, city, or town), State, or Federal. Then complete the chart below.

KINDS OF TAXES Local State Federal 1. 1. 1. 2. 2. 2. 3. 3. 3. 4. 4. 4. 5. 5. 5. 6. 6. 6.

Now consider some of the things in your community, State, and Nation that you get for your taxes, and complete the chart below.

Figure 54

Work Project: Taxes and Things We Get for Our Taxes

THINGS TO DO

Questions to discuss in your study group:

- 1. What are the principal kinds of taxes?
- 2. In what way are the expenses of the Government our own expenses?
- 3. Why should we be expected to pay for the services of our Government?

| 4. Give as many reasons as you can why you would no want to live in your own community if the people living there received none of the services of the Government. |
|--|
| 5. Why are the Government units able to do so many more things for us than we could do alone? |
| Complete each of the following: |
| 1. The tax which we pay on our earnings is called an |
| tax. |
| 2. When a person pays the Government a part of the money which he has inherited from someone else, he pays |
| an tax. |
| 3. The Department of our Federal Government in charge of all money matters is called the Department of |
| the |
| 4. Practically everyone who drives an automobile pays |
| a tax. |
| 5. The fees collected at some canals, bridges, and ferries |
| run by the State are called |
| 6. States and counties issue to hunt |
| ers and fishermen for which they charge a |
| 7. When a person breaks a law he may be punished by |
| having to pay a |
| |

Some more words which the student should understand:

customs duties—taxes imposed by law on merchandise brought into a country.

deductions-amounts allowed to be subtracted.

dependents—persons who depend on other persons to pay their living expenses.

dividends—amounts divided among owners of a company as their share of its profits.

grants-in-aid—money paid by the Federal Government to such State governments as are willing to cooperate in relief and welfare projects.

inheritance—any property which passes to a person by law upon the death of another person.

interest—a fee paid for the use of money,

busines—things bought for a person's pleasure and not needed for actual living.

tariff—a list of different kinds of merchandise, with the rate of tax to be paid for importing or exporting them.

transactions-pieces of business completed.

CHAPTER 27

How Our Government Units Work Together

"One Nation, Indivisible, with Liberty and Justice for All."

-From the Pledge to the Flag.

A

In the last chapter we discussed the cost of our governments' services and how we pay for them. In this chapter we shall find that our Nation is not made up of many parts which have nothing to do with one another. We shall learn that all parts of the Nation work with one another and for one another. The States cooperate with the Nation and the Nation cooperates with the States. The States cooperate with the cities and the cities cooperate with the States. It is because the several government units cooperate that our Nation is so strong and can render so many services to the people.

*

WHY OUR GOVERNMENT UNITS COOPERATE

You will recall that at the very beginning of this book you learned that our country is made up of many groups and that these groups work together in order to get things done. Individual members of a family help one another as a group. Families in a neighborhood work together to make a better neighborhood. Different neighborhood groups work together to make a better town or city. School and church groups work together to improve the community life.

Our government units work together so that they can get their work done more easily and more successfully. They work together to build a stronger country for us. If this were not true, our Nation would fall to pieces—perhaps, into 48 independent States, or into thousands of uncon"Tis the StarSpangled Banner oh long may it wave Oer the land of the free and the home of the brave"



SALUTE TO THE FLAG

"I pledge allegiance to the flag of the United States of America and to the Republic for which it stands: One nation, indivisible, with liberty and justice for all."

Figure 55
Flag of the United States

nected towns and cities. But the towns, cities, States, and the Nation depend on one another in many different ways. They could hardly do without one another.

HOW THE NATION COOPERATES WITH THE STATES

The National Government cooperates with the States in helping them with many of their problems. It cooperates in road building, in improving agriculture, in protecting natural wealth.

The National Government protects each State from outside invasions. It also helps to keep the peace if there is any outbreak of lawlessness which a State cannot control.

We have learned that the Federal Government has set up courts to which the States may take their disputes with one another and get a fair hearing and trial. The Federal Government guarantees each State a republican form of government. In turn, the State officials are bound by oath to support the Constitution of the United States.

As you learned earlier the Federal Government is bound by the Constitution not to exercise those powers which are left to the State governments and to the people. If it should overstep its power, the States could ask the Federal courts to stop it.

Turn back to the description of the work of the Executive Departments and independent agencies in chapters 23 and 24 (pp. 262 to 279), and you will be reminded that much of the work of government officials both at Washington and throughout the Nation consists of helping the States.

HOW THE STATES COOPERATE WITH THE NATION

The States have charge of the elections at which Senators and Members of the House of Representatives are elected to the Congress. In general and within limits set by the Constitution, each State may decide what classes of persons may vote for these officials. If you will re-read the chapter which tells how the President is elected, you will see that the States play a very important part in his election also.

The States must approve or refuse to approve of any amendment to the Federal Constitution which is suggested by the Congress. The American people cannot amend their Constitution unless the legislatures or conventions of at least 36 of the 48 States vote their approval. This means that any 13 States can defeat an amendment to the Constitution.

When the Federal Government needs help in time of national danger it may call on the militia (National Guard) of the several States.

In general the States make and enforce most of the laws which apply directly to the protection of the lives and property of citizens, except from dangers which may extend across State lines from other States. Because citizens in general have citizenship both in one particular State and in the United States, they are protected by both the State and Federal Government and owe loyalty to both.

HOW THE STATES COOPERATE WITH ONE ANOTHER

The 48 States also work together. They live as 48 large neighbors who depend on one another for many things. This is very important for every citizen who lives in any State. The court decisions, laws, and records of your State are equally binding in every State of the Nation. The United States Constitution provides that:

"Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State."

If the States did not cooperate in this way, a marriage performed according to the laws of your State might not be recognized in another State. And a title or deed to property in your State might not be accepted in another.

People can move from one State to another freely. For example, if you move from Rhode Island to Massachusetts, you may be sure that the State of Massachusetts will not place higher taxes on your income or your property than it places on the income or property of its own citizens

under the same conditions. The Constitution provides that:

"The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and *immunities* of citizens in the several States."

However, a State may require you to live there for a certain length of time before it gives you a right to vote or hold office.

If a criminal crosses from one State to another, the second State, on request of the governor of the first State, will usually send the criminal back to the State in which he committed the crime. In this way States cooperate in enforcing State laws.

Sometimes when neighboring States have a problem in common they join and work as one group. For example, those States which sometimes are flooded by the waters of the Mississippi River have joined together to try to solve their common problem. As another example, New York and New Jersey worked together to improve the conditions of the port of New York.

HOW THE STATES, COUNTIES, CITIES, AND TOWNS COOPERATE

You learned earlier that cities and towns get their authority from the State. In some States cities are allowed almost complete freedom in establishing their own government. The counties also get their authority from the State.

Sometimes the State cooperates with the towns or counties in such matters as supervising education, building roads and public buildings, and earing for the poor and sick.

The State offers to local units of government and to citizens its system of courts to which they can bring their disputes for a fair trial. In some cases it helps to keep the peace in local communities.

The local government units often cooperate with the State in enforcing State laws. The counties, towns, and cities help to collect taxes for the State. They have charge of elections at which State officials are chosen.

SUMMARY

Our Nation, the 48 States and thousands of smaller units help one another and depend on one another. Because of this the many parts of our country are drawn closely together into one whole. They make "a more perfect union" wherein the people rule. This cooperation makes it possible for us to move from one State to another without inconvenience or loss.

In 1918 the House of Representatives of the United States adopted a short statement drawn up by William Tyler Page, Clerk of the House, which it called "The American's Creed." We cannot give a better summary of the ways in which American Government cooperates for the common good than by quoting it. Read it in Figure

| 56, then discuss its meaning in your class group. |
|---|
| THINGS TO DO |
| Complete each of the following: |
| 1. Four of our government units which cooperate are: |
| 1 3 |
| 24 |
| 2. Three ways in which the Federal Government co- operates with the 48 States are: |
| 1 |
| 2 |
| 3 |
| 3. Three ways in which the 48 States cooperate with our Federal Government are: |
| 1 |
| |

The American's Creed

I believe in the United States as a Government of the People, by the People, for the People; whose Just Powers are Derived from the Consent



of the Governed; A Democracy in a Republic; A Sovereign Nation of many Sovereign States; A Perfect Union, One and Inseparable; Established upon those Principles of Treedom, Equality Justice, and Humanity for which American Patriots Sacrificed their Lives and Fortunes.

I Therefore Believe it is My Duty to My Country to Love it; to support its Constitution; to Obey its Laws, to Respect its Flag; and to defend it Against All Enemies.

William Tyler Page

Figure 56 The American's Creed

| 4 |
|---|
| 3 |
| 4. Three ways in which the 48 States cooperate with one another are: $ \\$ |
| 1 |
| 2 |
| 3 |
| 5. Three ways in which the States cooperate with their counties, cities, and towns are: |
| 1 |
| 2 |
| 3 |
| 6. Three ways in which the counties, cities, and towns cooperate with the State are: |
| 1 |
| 2 |
| 3 |
| Some more words which the student should understand: |
| immunities—privileges which let people be free of certain obligations or requirements. |

\$ \$ \$

CHAPTER 28

Some of the Ways in Which Our Government Units Cooperate With and Keep Contact With Groups of Citizens

"Public officials are the trustees of the people."

—Grover Gleveland.

*

In chapter 27 we have outlined the ways in which many government groups in this country keep in contact with one another and cooperate for the basic objectives of good government.

Our government units are also in close contact with the people, from whom they get their authority and for whom they render many services. Most government officials in this democracy keep constantly in their minds the fact that they are representatives of the people and therefore servants of the people, and that it is very necessary to keep close to the people.

4

THE CONTACTS OF INDIVIDUAL REPRESENTATIVES WITH THE GROUPS OF CITIZENS WHOM THEY REPRESENT

Holders of elective public office in villages, towns, townships, cities, and counties are called upon many times during their terms of office to help their fellow citizens solve many kinds of problems. This is also true of State officials and of officials of the Federal Government. Every member of the Congress, for instance, gets many letters every week from his constituents, asking help in some local problem, or recommending the passage of some new Federal law, or suggesting some improvement in the Federal law, or suggesting some improvement in the Federal public officials receive, are usually answered in a spirit of cooperation. The government of this country truly belongs to the people.

THE CONTACTS OF THE EXECUTIVE BRANCH OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT WITH GROUPS OF THE PEOPLE

Because the Executive Branch is responsible for rendering most of the many services to the people which the Legislative Branch decides upon and authorizes by its laws, the more formal contacts of groups of citizens with the Federal Government are usually with representatives of its various Executive Departments and agencies. The most common contact of every citizen with the United States Government is, of course, with the Post Office Department-although this can hardly be called a very formal relationship. The many services of the post office in carrying and delivering letters, post cards, publications, packages, and other valuables safely, quickly, and at the lowest possible cost are so much of an everyday matter that most citizens hardly give a thought to this vast smoothly running Government organization. They do not often think, either, about the Navy Department when they set their watches by some clock in a public place which is regulated by the correct, official Naval Observatory time. Nor do they think of the Department of Commerce when they look in their newspapers for the Weather Bureau Report to help them make plans for outdoor activities. The postman's uniform may remind them that he is an official representative of the Federal Government, just as the uniform of the ranger in a National Park may remind automobile vacationists, or the uniform of the Immigration or Customs inspector may remind travelers returning from abroad of the same fact. We do not see the uniforms of our Army and Navy as often as citizens of many foreign countries see similar uniforms, and so are not often reminded of the protective and peace-enforcing services of our Federal Government. But these are some of the many contacts which are taking place day by day between the Government and the people.

Here are a few of the many other ways in which our Government units cooperate with groups of citizens:

HOW OUR GOVERNMENT UNITS COOPERATE WITH THOSE WHO PROTECT THE HEALTH OF THE PEOPLE

We citizens of the United States believe that the people must have good health, sound minds, and strong bodies if we are effectively to "secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity"-which is one of the basic objectives set down in the Preamble of the Constitution. In past chapters we have often mentioned the parks and playgrounds, as well as the hospitals and clinics, which are maintained by Government units. These aids to good health are used in connection with the efforts of all kinds of groups of citizens to promote the same objective. The officials of our public-school systems and State universities are leaders in protecting the health of young people and do much to cooperate with the students and their parents in this line. State, county, city, and town governments often employ doctors and trained nurses to protect the health of school children and others.

The United States Government maintains a Public Health Service to prevent the spread of diseases from one State to another, to make and enforce quarantine regulations, to study national problems of health, and to learn how best to cure many dangerous diseases. In these ways the United States Public Health Service gives valuable cooperation to private members of the medical profession. It also inspects all aliens to prevent them from bringing contagious diseases into this country. It is a Nation-wide cooperative health organization to improve the physical condition of the American people. Its free publications on all sorts of health problems are sent to hundreds of thousands of citizens every year.

usanus of cruzens every year.

HOW OUR GOVERNMENT UNITS HELP THE WAGE EARNERS

There are many National and State laws dealing with the conditions of labor. As a general thing State governments are responsible for the conditions under which their people live and work, as we have already explained. So most States now have labor departments, commissions, or bureaus. Many such State agencies help unemployed workers to find new jobs and eooperate with worker groups in many ways to make their work safer and healthier. They enforce laws which require healthful conditions in factories and safety devices on dangerous machines and appliances. It is also the duty of State governments to use their best efforts in helping employers and employees to settle their disputes peaceably and with as little disturbance and loss to either group as possible.

The Federal Government has an Executive Department of Labor, as you have learned, especially established by law to improve the condition of the wage earner. This Department cooperates with State labor departments in many ways and also performs many services for workers on Government contracts and in interstate commerce. Its conciliators cooperate to settle many difficult labor disputes all over the country. The free publications of its Children's Bureau on many subjects having to do with the health and well-being of babies and older children are of great value to the parents of the Nation.

HOW OUR GOVERNMENT UNITS HELP THE FARMER

Many Government agencies throughout the Nation are testing and finding better ways of farming, and are teaching the farmer how he can produce more from his land and how he can fight farm pests, animal diseases, and other dangers. For after all the farmer grows the food on which we all must live.

The Federal Department of Agriculture tries to find new uses and better markets for the farmer's products; it has brought to this country from foreign lands many valuable new plants which he can grow profitably. Its free publications on farm problems are the guide of many progressive farmers all over the country.

The Department of Commerce maintains a Weather Bureau to give the farmer warning of coming frosts, floods, storms, and heat waves, and to help him decide when to harvest his crops. Both the Federal and State Governments have been interested in working with the farmer in preventing the washing away of soil on which crops may be grown. They have cooperated to prevent destructive floods in river valleys. On the other hand they have often helped the farmer to secure a sufficient water supply for land which would otherwise be too dry to grow crops.

HOW OUR GOVERNMENT UNITS HELP THE PEOPLE TO SAFEGUARD THEIR MONEY AND INVESTMENTS

Almost everybody in this country has some dealings with a bank, because our American banking system undertakes to keep people's money safe for them and also to have supplies of money ready at places where they are needed—for pay rolls and other purposes. The banks are allowed to lend to their customers part of the money they hold, under conditions limited by law. Some of the banks, chartered as "National Banks," are responsible to the Federal Government for obeying Federal laws, while others, chartered as "State Banks," are answerable to the State governments. In both cases, the governments send examiners to the banks every few months to see that their business methods do not violate the law and that the people's money is safe.

To regulate the supply and movement of money in the United States, the Federal Government has also established a Federal Reserve System, with 12 Federal Reserve regional banks in different parts of the country, all of which are supervised by a central board at Washington. This system is a form of cooperation among groups of bankers, under Federal supervision. To protect the people who have money to invest, it has established the Securities and Exchange Commission, which cooperates with dealers in stocks and bonds in giving to investors complete and correct information about the companies which are being fnumeed and in preventing all sorts of dishonest practices.

HOW OUR GOVERNMENT UNITS COOPERATE WITH MANY GROUPS INTERESTED IN TRAVEL AND TRANSPORTATION

Various Government units are lawfully charged with considerable responsibility for the safety of travel in the United States and on the bodies of water that wash its shores, and the Government is therefore in close touch with many groups interested in transportation. All ships which operate in American waters must be inspected and approved by the Bureau of Marine Inspection and Navigation of the Department of Commerce. Ships' officers are supplied with charts and maps prepared by the Navy Department.

Railroad, motor-bus, and motor-truck equipment must comply with safety standards set by Government units. The rates charged for various forms of interstate travel and transportation are determined by the Interstate Commerce Commission, so that the cost paid by the people for passenger, express, and freight transportation may be reasonable.

American citizens who wish to travel in foreign countries are given passports by the Department of State and are free to call upon that Department's consular officers abroad for information and help during their travels.

OUR GOVERNMENT UNITS HAVE MANY CONTACTS WITH COMMERCE AND BUSINESS

It is only possible to mention a few of the very great number of such contacts here. The Bureau of the Census, an agency of the Federal Department of Commerce, provides merchants and businessmen with much useful information. Besides its general census of the population taken every 10 years, it takes a census of manufactures every 2 years, and a census of agriculture and the electrical industries every 5 years. It also supplies at frequent intervals valuable official information about many trades and industries. The National Bureau of Standards in the same Department gives to merchants their correct weights and measures. The Federal Security Agency, through its Food and Drug Administration, helps manufacturers and

dealers to handle only such food and drug products as come up to certain standards set by laws and regulations. The Bureau of Internal Revenue, through its Alcohol Tax Unit, regulates the manufacture of alcoholic beverages. The Department of the Interior, through its Bureau of Mines, helps the owners and operators of mines and petroleum (oil) and natural-gas properties to conduct their business safely and with as little accident and waste as possible.

În this chapter we have mentioned and described a few of the many contacts which Government units have with individual citizens and groups of citizens in matters having to do with their work, travel, business, money, and the everyday incidents of their lives. It is well to remember that, in all these contacts, a democratic government is trying to serve the people whom it represents and whose final authority gives it its right to exist. Government units in a democracy only make and enforce such laws as seem at the time to be for the good of the people.

THINGS TO DO

Complete each of the following:

| wage earners in our country are: |
|---|
| 1 |
| 2 |
| Two ways in which our Government units cooperate farmers are: |
| 1 |
| 2 |
| Two ways in which our Government units cooperate those in charge of transportation are: |
| 1 |
| |

WORK PROJECT

For several days try to learn some of the ways your different government units touch your life and direct your cactions. Consider the streets you woulk on, the food you eat, the water you drink. Talk with your neighbors about this. Then make a large chart something like the one below and fill in the blank spaces. Later you may wish to discuss your work in class.

SERVICES OF MY GOVERNMENT LINITS

How my governments PROTECT me:

| 1 | |
|---|--------|
| 2 | |
| 3 | |
| Things which my governments INSPECT and REGULATE: | |
| 1 | |
| 2. | |
| 3 | |
| Things which my governments HELP by lending or giving | money: |
| 1 | |
| 2 | |
| 3 | |
| Things which my governments OPERATE or CONTROL: | |
| 1 | |
| 9 | |
| 3, | |
| Other services which I would like my governments to do: | |
| 1 | |
| | |

Figure 57

| 4. | Two | ways | $_{ m in}$ | which | our | Government | units | cooperate |
|------|-------|--------|------------|-------|-----|------------|-------|-----------|
| with | the n | nercha | nt | sare: | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | |

2

5. Two ways in which our Government units cooperate with investors and bank depositors are:

2

- 1. How do the representatives whom the people elect to office know the wishes of their constitutents?
- 2. Can you name some direct contacts which you have with officers of the Government?
- 3. List some of the services which the Government provides for the people.
- 4. Can you think of some other services which you would like to have the Government perform?
- 5. Why is it better to have the Government perform certain services for the people than for the people themselves to do them?

Some more words which the student should understand:

conciliators—persons who meet with two disputing groups to try to get them to agree, even though each group has to give up something.

constituents—the group of persons who vote for and elect an official to represent them in a public office.

cooperative—having all units working together to bring about one result.

financed-furnished with money.

safeguard—guard to protect safely.

CHAPTER 29

Some Basic Principles of the United States Government

(1) PRINCIPLES OF GOVERNMENT ORGANIZATION IN OUR DEMOCRACY

"Liberty and Union, now and forever, one, and inseparable.

—Daniel Webster.

*

You have nearly completed your study of the Government groups of which this great country is made up. You have learned (1) how our Government units get their authority to exist and do their work; (2) what their objectives are; (3) how they are organized and (4) how they keep contact with and cooperate with one another and with many groups of citizens in this country.

All of these factors in group living, as shown on the human hand in Figure 6, rest on certain basic principles and standards of our system of Government. These principles, therefore, have a direct influence on the authority, objectives, organization, and contacts of our Government units. Every new citizen should understand the basic principles of our Government, in order that he or she may know what obligations he or she has undertaken and what rights he or she has gained by taking an oath of allegiance and becoming a citizen.

Some of these principles and standards have to do with our Government organization and how it must be safeguarded to preserve our highly valued democracy. Others have to do with the relationship of the Government to each individual citizen and noncitizen.

In this and the following chapter we shall review many things which you have learned in the course of your study. We shall repeat many points to which you have already given much thought and discussion. For these principles

The Strong Foundations of the United States Government



(All of these foundation stones" are explained in this book)

Figure 58
The Strong Foundations of the United States Government

are the foundation stones on which the whole structure of our country's government is built, and nothing planned by man can be stronger than its foundations. The set of principles described in this chapter are those on which the American form of democratic government was developed for the United States, through the wisdom of its early statesmen and because of the special problems of its early history. They have stood the test of time and proved to be sound working principles of democracy. In reviewing them and the principles discussed in the next chapter, we can sum up the whole teaching of this book.

*

THE PRINCIPLES OF A PEDERAL SYSTEM

One of the basic principles of government in the United States is that every citizen has two separate citizenshipsa National citizenship and a State citizenship. The State government exercises the principal "police power" in safeguarding his freedom to live and work and vote as he likes. but limiting that freedom so that he does no unlawful damage to any other citizen or group of citizens. The National Government must think and plan for the whole Nation and, because of this larger objective, may seem farther removed from the individual citizen than his State government. Yet there are so many problems in this great country, which cannot be limited to individual States but stretch across State boundaries, that the National Government is often the only government with broad enough powers to do important and necessary services for the people. We know this from our study, in chapter 28, of the contacts of the Federal Government with its citizens.

By this dual Federal system the people of this country have built up a workable government organization big enough and strong enough to develop and rule a great nation and yet close enough to each citizen to give friendly attention to his or her individual needs. In smaller countries a single government may fulfill both requirements, but for a nation covering 3 million square miles and made up of over 131 million people, the existence of 48 self-governing States in a cooperative Federal system and under a wise Federal Constitution has proved a mighty safeguard to democracy.

THE PRINCIPLE OF DELEGATED POWERS

Closely related to the principle of a Federal system is that of delegated powers. This means that our Federal Government does not have unlimited power but can exercise only such powers as are given to it by the people, through the Constitution. In chapter 11 in Figure 28 you will find a list of subjects on which the Constitution gives the Congress power to make laws and rules. All powers not delegated to the Federal Government, or kept by the people, are reserved to the States. There are certain things which both governments can do, and certain things which neither government can do. In Figure 28 you will see how these powers are distributed.

THE PRINCIPLE OF DIVISION OF AUTHORITY

You studied this principle when we were discussing the organization of the Federal Government. You saw that the authority of the Federal Government is divided among three branches, and that none of the three has authority enough to dominate the whole government. The Constitution tells what each branch is to do: The Legislative is TO MARE THE LAWS, the Executive is TO PUT THE LAWS INTO EFFECT, and the Judicial is TO APPLY AND EXPLAIN THE LAWS.

You will recall that the Congress is divided into two Houses—the Senate and the House of Representatives. (See Figure 45.)

The Executive Branch includes the President, the Vice President, the 10 Executive Departments, and other Government officials and agencies. (See Figure 50.)

The Judicial Branch is made up of the Federal courts, which, in deciding cases brought before them, interpret the meaning of the laws made by the Congress and apply them to many different situations that arise in the life of a great Nation. (See Figure 52.)

It may be well to remember that State governments are divided into the same three branches.

THE PRINCIPLE OF AN INDEPENDENT JUDICIARY

One of the three separate branches of our Government, the Judiciary, is especially created to give the people "equal justice under the law." Our Constitution provides that the judges of our Federal courts shall be appointed by the President without limit of time but during good behavior, and that their pay may not be lowered during their term of office. This arrangement gives to every Federal judge a safe position as long as he performs his duties properly, removes from him any problem of reelection and tends to make him independent of outside influences.

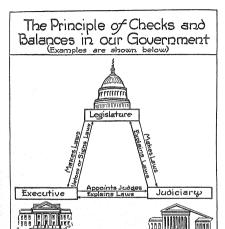
THE PRINCIPLE OF CHECKS AND BALANCES

Although the three branches of our Federal Government have separate powers, each branch is given certain authority over the other two. Thus the powers of all three can be kept in balance. The Constitution provides ways by which one branch can check another from getting more power than belongs to it. It also provides checks by which each branch can keep final action from being taken in too great a hurry. What are some of these checks?

Laws passed by the Congress may be signed or vetoed by the President. In this way the Executive Branch can suggest to the Legislative Branch that it has not acted wisely. But even if the President vetoes a law, the Congress can pass it again over his veto if a two-thirds vote of each House can be secured to show that the Legislative Branch still stands firm in favor of the proposed law.

The Houses of Congress check each other. Every bill must be passed by a majority vote of both Houses before it can become a law. Each House may amend any bill which has been passed by the other House, but both must agree on its final form or it does not become a law. (See Figure 59.)

The people of the United States cannot take all the



This chart indicates one way in which each branch of our National Government is authorized to check (to hold back, to slow up, and even to change) the action of each of the other two branches.

power away from a political party at a single election, and this fact is a check on hasty changes in national policy. The President serves a 4-year term; Members of the House of Representatives serve a 2-year term; Senators serve a 6-year term, and only one-third of the Senators are elected at any one national election. Therefore, we cannot have a sudden and complete change of Federal officials at any one time.

Any Federal court, in deciding a law case, may declare that a Federal law is unconstitutional. If the Supreme Court agrees with the decision, the law, although it has been deliberately passed by the Congress and approved by the President, is void and of no effect. By such a decision the Judicial Branch checks the Legislative Branch. It also sometimes checks the Executive Branch by holding that a law-enforcing officer has acted beyond his powers in attempting to enforce the law in an illegal way.

While the President is given the power to appoint judges of the Federal courts and thus to put into important judicial positions men who think as he does about national problems, his appointments must be approved by a majority vote of the Senate—an effective check on his appointive power. The Senate can in the same way check other important Presidential appointments, such as those of our ambassadors to foreign countries and the heads of Federal departments and agencies.

The President may negotiate treaties, but they become effective only with the consent of two-thirds of the Senate. He is Commander in Chief of our Army and Navy and may legally do many things which might bring about a war, but both Houses of the Congress must agree to a declaration of war. This joint control of foreign relations is a very important part of our "check and balance" principle.

The President plans a budget of money to be raised and spent in operating the Federal Government and presents it to the Congress. The Legislative Branch may check him by refusing to approve his budget or by refusing to raise the money to meet its requirements. You will recall that all money bills must get their legislative start in the House of Representatives.

The House of Representatives may, through impeachment proceedings, bring charges against any executive or judicial officer of the United States. These charges are presented to the Senate which is authorized to act as judge in all impeachment cases. If the person is found guilty he is removed from office. The power of impeachment gives the Legislative Branch a check on both of the other branches of our Government.

These checks are for the purpose of keeping a balance of power among all the parts of our government organizations. They assure us that no one part will take all the power into its own hands.

THINGS TO DO

Questions to discuss in your study group:

- 1. When a person becomes naturalized, of what two government units does he or she become a citizen?
- 2. Why do you think that it was wise to divide the authority of our National Government among three separate branches?
- 3. Name some of the principles of our government which have led people to come to this country from foreign lands.

Complete each of the following:

| 1. Four of the | basic | principles | of | the | organizati | on | οů |
|------------------|-------|------------|----|-----|------------|----|----|
| our government a | re: | | | | | | |

| 2 | | | | | 7,7 | _ |
|---|--|--|--|--|-----|---|
| 3 | | | | | | |
| £ | | | | | | |

| 2. Two ways in which the Legislative Branch may checked by the other branches of the Government are: | |
|--|---|
| 1 | |
| 2 | |
| 3. Two ways in which the Executive Branch may checked by the other branches of the Government are: | b |
| 1 | |
| 2 | |
| 4. Two ways in which the Judicial Branch may checked by the other branches of the Government are: | b |
| 1 | |
| | |

\$ \$

CHAPTER 30

Some Basic Principles of the United States Government

(2) PRINCIPLES OF THE GOVERNMENT'S RELATIONSHIP TO THE CITIZEN

"Government of the people, by the people, and for the people."

-Abraham Lincoln.

We have now discussed all the basic factors of group life—authority, purpose or objective, organization, contacts, and principles and standards—as applied to local, State, and National Government groups in this country. In chapter 29 we considered certain basic principles of government organization which the people of the United States have established for themselves and in which they wholeheartedly believe.

In this last chapter we shall review the basic principles of our Government and Constitution which have to do with the relationship of every citizen and inhabitant of this broad land to the governing organizations and groups in which he or she has membership. We believe that these basic principles are the strong foundation without which successful democracy cannot exist. The details which we give you in describing these principles are in some cases peculiar to the United States, but the principles themselves are the bedrock on which must be built up every "government of the people, by the people, and for the people." (See Figure 60.)

THE PRINCIPLE OF REPRESENTATIVE GOVERNMENT

Our Constitution is based on the principle that the people actually take part in government through chosen representatives. It is never possible to get all the people of this great country together in one place to make their own

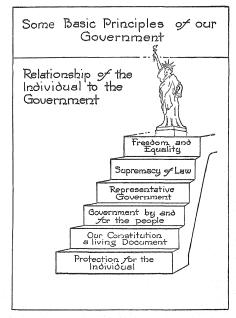


Figure 60 Some Basic Principles of Our Government

laws and to take a hand in the work of governing. But they must keep the final authority-the last word. So they elect a President, Vice President, and a national lawmaking body to represent them. And all over the country groups of voters choose State, county, city, and town officials to represent them in smaller government units. Such officials must do their work in a way which satisfies the wishes of a majority of the voters, or that majority is likely to vote them out of office and to choose other more satisfactory representatives. We have frequent elections in this country in order to give the people a chance to use this final authority.

In many other countries this is not true. The people who are being governed have no "last word"-sometimes they do not even have a first word or any word at allabout their government. Their laws and regulations. their taxation, their right to freedom and justice, are exactly what some person or group of persons at the top of the government wishes to give them, regardless of their desires

In our country, even the President of the United States must go to the polling place on election day and cast his ballot like any other voter, if he wishes to do his full duty as a citizen. And his vote counts exactly as much as that of his humblest fellow citizen, and no more. On election day he proves that he too is one of "the governed." with the same right as the rest to help choose his representatives in the government of his country.

THE PRINCIPLE THAT THE CONSTITUTION IS A LIVING DOCUMENT AND MAY BE CHANGED TO MEET CHANGING CONDITIONS

You learned very early in this book that when the representatives of the 13 original States were drawing up the Constitution they recognized that they could not devise a system of government which would remain in effect for many years without change. So they gave to the Constitution its Fifth Article, which makes provision for the adoption of amendments whenever the people and their representatives in the Congress decide that changes are necessary. This keeps the Constitution from being rigid and unchangeable and from getting out of date as the Nation grows and develops. It is one of the reasons why the Constitution of the United States is today the oldest written constitution still in force. If you turn back to Figure 18 you will see at a glance the method by which our Constitution may be amended.

We have changed our Constitution by formal amendment 21 times. Look at Figures 20 and 21 and study the many important additions and changes which have been made by these amendments.

We have developed the meaning of our Constitution by informal methods also. Many powers implied in the Constitution have been brought out more clearly by court decisions. The Constitution has been the foundation on which many amplifying acts of Congress, regulations, and customs have been built. If you will turn back to Figure 22 you will see a list of the various ways in which the meaning of our Constitution has been developed.

Because our Constitution can be changed by formal amendments and developed by informal methods to meet our needs we call it a living document. When we wish to change any part of our Government we can do so in an orderly manner and according to the will of the people.

THE PRINCIPLE OF THE SUPREMACY OF THE LAW

Our laws are higher than any one man or group of men. No person in our country is so great that he can freely discovery of disregard our law. No person is so poor or so needy that he is refused the protection of the law. All our officials in our 48 States and in our Nation are bound by their oaths of office to uphold the Constitution and laws of our country. No official—not even the President of the United States—has a right to issue decrees or orders which are contrary to the laws enacted by the lawmaking representatives of the people.

THE PRINCIPLE OF FREEDOM AND EQUALITY

We Americans have always loved our freedom—our freedom to work and to play, to think and to talk, to make plans and to improve ourselves and our families. We believe that all men and women—rich and poor alike—share equally the rights of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. The objective of our Government is to protect this freedom and these rights for us. But we ourselves must share these rights with our neighbors and with all the people. We do not have the right, for instance, to live like drones at the public expense; nor the right to neglect the economic or social problems of our community; nor the right to pursue happiness by interfering with the rights of other people. No one—not even the Government itself—has authority to take away the human rights of law-abid-ing persons.

The right of qualified persons to vote cannot be taken away from them because they are of a certain race, color, or sex. The vote of every qualified person is given equal value.

Our officials are elected or appointed to their offices in a peaceful manner. They do not inherit their offices from someone else. They do not get them because they were born in certain families or classes. When an immigrant becomes a naturalized citizen, he or she becomes just as eligible as a native-born citizen for any office in our Government, except that of President or Vice President.

THE PRINCIPLE OF THE PROTECTION OF THE RIGHTS OF THE INDIVIDUAL

One of the principles of our Constitution is the protection of basic human rights. Most of these rights are described in the first 10 amendments of the Federal Constitution, which are known as the Bill of Rights.

Our people have the right to speak, write, print, or publish their opinions with the utmost freedom. The American people have always believed that freedom of speech and freedom of the press are valuable aids to independent

thinking. This is very important in a democracy where the people elect their own representatives and help to solve their own problems.

In this country all persons have the right to assemble peaceably in groups at any time. These groups may meet for any lawful purpose. They may wish to discuss maters about the government or they may wish to petition the government for something which they believe they need. Our entire group life in this country is based on the right of our people to meet together for any peaceable purpose. (Review Figure 24 in connection with this principle.)

No matter whether a person living in our country is rich or poor, weak or strong, our Constitution guarantees that he will not have his life, liberty, or property taken away without "due process of law." This means that he must be given a chance to be heard and to have his side of the question seriously considered by the Government, according to well-understood legal rules.

Our people have a right to be the masters of their own homes. The Constitution makes it unlawful for a Federal officer to search a home or take away any property from it without having a formal warrant (permit from the Government) to do so.

If a person is accused of having committed a crime, our courts are required to regard him as innocent until he has been proved guilty. This prevents a person from being convicted without convincing proof of his guilt. During a criminal trial the accused person need not testify unless he wishes to do so. Even if the person is found guilty, the court cannot order a cruel or unusual punishment or an unreasonably large fine. If a person has been arrested and tried for a crime and found not guilty, he cannot legally be tried a second time for the same offense.

THE PRINCIPLE OF GOVERNMENT BY AND FOR THE PEOPLE

In our system of democracy, government must always be the servant of the people. In this country any person

has the right to ask the Government for help in meeting the problems of his life and work. Any person in this country, for example, has the privilege of addressing and sending a letter to the President of the United States, as the head of the people's government, asking for help or suggesting improvements; and a great many persons do so. This is a part of the constitutional right of the people to petition for the "redress of grievances." Unless the letter is unreasonable and evidently unworthy of serious consideration, the President or someone in his office may either answer it or refer it to the proper executive agency for prompt attention.

As we pointed out in chapter 28, when discussing the various contacts of our Government with the people, this same situation exists with regard to the appeals of individual citizens to Members of the Congress. Every Senator and Congressman is giving constant attention to the affairs of his constituents and is doing many services for their benefit. The doors of government offices open easily, and with a ready welcome, to those who hold the final authority in a democracy.

The people have set up a government because they know they must delegate their great authority if it is to be used cooperatively for the benefit of all. Someone must govern the people, but "with the consent of the governed." We believe that we have described in this book an effective system of people's government, aimed and directed toward the happiness and well-being of all the people equally.

THINGS TO DO

Questions to discuss in your study group:

- 1. Tell in your own words what a government "of the people, by the people, and for the people" means to you.
- 2. Why are government officials sometimes called "servants of the people"?
- 3. What do we mean when we say we can change and develop our Constitution by formal and informal methods?

- 4. Can the President issue orders which are contrary to law?
- 5. What does the principle of freedom and equality mean to you in your own everyday life?
- 6. Can you become President of the United States? Why or why not?
- 7. How many rights can you name which are guaranteed to you in the Bill of Rights?
- 8. Why do you want to become a citizen of the United States? You might make a list showing the rights which you will receive and another list showing some of the duties you will undertake as a citizen.

Some more words which the student should understand:

amplifying—enlarging, expanding.
devise—make up, plan, or prepare.
drones—persons too lazy to work.
humblest—most modest or least known.
rigid—stiff, unbending, unable to change in form.

The Declaration of Independence

IN CONGRESS, JULY 4, 1776

The Unanimous Declaration of the Thirteen United States of America

When in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of Nature and of Nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights, that among these are life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness. That to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed,-That whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new government, laving its foundation on such principles and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath shown, that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security.-Such has been the patient sufferance of these Colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these States. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his assent to laws, the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his Governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his assent should be obtained; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature, a right inestimable to them and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distance from the depository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved Representative Houses repeatedly, for opposing with manly firmness his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused for a long time, after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise; the State remaining in the mean time exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without, and convulsions within.

He has endeavoured to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose obstructing the laws for naturalization of foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their migrations hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers. He has made judges dependent on his will alone, for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people, and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us, in times of peace, standing armies without the consent of our legislatures. He has affected to render the military independent of

and superior to the civil power,

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation:

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us: For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these States:

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world: For imposing taxes on us without our consent:

For depriving us in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury:

For transporting us beyond seas to be tried for pretended offenses:

For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighbouring province, establishing therein an arbitrary, government, and enlarging its boundaries so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies:

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering fundamentally the forms of our governments:

For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here, by declaring us out of his protection and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow citizens taken captive on the high seas to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavoured to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers, the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms: Our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in attentions to our British brethren. We have warmed them from time to time of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them by the ties of our common kindred to disavow these usurpations, which, would invitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They too have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war, in peace friends.

We, Therefore, the Representatives of the United States of America, in General Congress, Assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name, and by authority of the good people of these Colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these United Colonies are, and of right ought

to be Free and Independent States; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain, is and ought to be totally dissolved; and that as free and independent States, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish comerce, and to do all other acts and things which independent States may of right do. And for the support of this Declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes and our sacred honor.

JOHN HANCOCK.

New Hampshire

JOSIAH BARTLETT, WM. WHIPPLE. MATTHEW THORNTON.

Massachusetts Rau

SAML, ADAMS, JOHN ADAMS. ROBT. TREAT PAINE, ELBRIDGE GERRY.

Rhode Island

STEP. HOPKINS,

WILLIAM ELLERY.

Connecticut

ROGER SHERMAN, SAM'EL HUNTINGTON, WM. WILLIAMS, OLIVER WOLCOTT.

New York

WM. FLOYD, PHIL. LIVINGSTON. FRANS. LEWIS, LEWIS MORPIS.

New Jersey

RICHD. STOCKTON, JNO. WITHERSPOON, FRAS. HOPKINSON, John Hart, Abra. Clark.

Pennsylvania

ROBT. MORRIS, BENJAMIN RUSH, BENJA. FRANKLIN, JOHN MORTON, GEO. CLYMER, Jas. Smith, Geo. Taylor, James Wilson, Geo. Ross.

Delamare

CAESAR RODNEY,

THO. M'KEAN.

GEO. READ,

Maryland

Virginia

SAMUEL CHASE, WM. PACA.

CHARLES CARROLL of Carrollton.

THOS. STONE,

GEORGE WYTHE. RICHARD HENRY LEE. TH. JEFFERSON,

THOS. NELSON, JR., Francis Lightfoot Lee. CARTER BRAXTON.

Benja, Harrison,

North Carolina JOHN PENN.

WM. HOOPER, JOSEPH HEWES.

South Carolina

THOS. HEYWARD, JUNE., THOMAS LYNCH, JUNE., ARTHUR MIDDLETON. EDWARD RUTLEDGE,

Georgia

BUTTON GWINNETT, LYMAN HALL,

GEO. WALTON.

Constitution of the United States of America

PREAMBLE

We the People of the United States, in order to form a more perfect Union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I

Section 1. All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

Section 2. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature.

No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct.

The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.

When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the Executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

Section 3. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each State, chosen by the legislature thereof, for six years and each senator shall have one vote.

Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year, of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year, and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the legislature of any State, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

The Vice President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a President pro tempore, in the absence of the Vice President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside: And no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two thirds of the members present.

Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust or profit under the United States: but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment and punishment, according to law.

Section 4. The times, places and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives, shall be prescribed in each State by the legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by law make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.

The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

SECTION 5. Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties as each house may provide.

Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behaviour, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy; and the yeas and the nays of the members of either house on any question shall, at the desire of one fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

Neither house, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

Section 6. The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the Treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States, shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

SECTION 7. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it become a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approves he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it, with his objections to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such reconsideration two thirds of that House shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two thirds of that House, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both Houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of

the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each House respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which ease it shall not be a law.

Every order, resolution, or vote to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

Section 8. The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

To borrow money on the credit of the United States; To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;

To establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States:

To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures; To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the se-

curities and current coin of the United States;

To establish post offices and post roads;

To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing for limited times to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;

To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court; To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offenses against the law of nations; To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

To provide and maintain a Navy;

To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections and repel invasions;

To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining, the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively, the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the Government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings;—And

To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for earrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

Section 9. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus shall not be

suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

No bill of attainder or ex post facto law shall be passed. No capitation, or other direct, tax shall be laid, unless

in proportion to the census or enumeration herein before directed to be taken.

No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.

No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another: nor shall vessels bound to, or from, one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

No money shall be drawn from the Treasury, but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States: And no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any King, Prince, or foreign State.

Section 10. No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make any thing but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts: pass any bill of attainder, ex post facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lav any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the Treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lav any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ships of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE IT

SECTION 1. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the Vice President, chosen for the same term, be elected, as follows

Each State, shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress; but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each; which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the Government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose by ballot one of them for President; and if no person have a majority, then from the five highest on the list the said House shall in like manner choose the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice.

In every case, after the choice of the President, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors shall be the Vice President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them by ballot the Vice President.

The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

No person except a natural born citizen, or a citizen of the United States, at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice President, declaring what officer shall then act as President, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services, a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation:—"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will to the best of my ability, preserve, protect and defend the Constitution of the United States."

SECTION 2. The President shall be Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the Executive Departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two thirds of the Senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, Judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law: but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

Section 3. He shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them, with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SECTION 4. The President, Vice President and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III

Section 1. The judicial power of the United States, shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behaviour, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services, a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

Section 2. The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority;—to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls;—to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction;—to controversies to which the United States shall be a party;—to controversies between two or more States;—between a State and citizens of another State;—between citizens of different States,—between different States, and between a State, or the citizens of different States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign States, citizens or subjects.

In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a State shall be a party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

The trial of all crimes, except in eases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

SECTION 3. Treason against the United States, shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two

witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE TV

Section 1. Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may by general laws prescribe the manner in which such acts, records and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SECTION 2. The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

No person held to service or labour in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labour, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labour may be due.

Section 3. New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the Territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State. Section 4. The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of Government, and shall protect each of them against invasion; and on application of the legislature, or of the executive (when the legislature cannot be convened) against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V

The Congress, whenever two thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or on the application of the legislatures of two thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the legislatures of three fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress; provided that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the Ninth Section of the First Article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI

All debts contracted and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.

This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, any thing in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation, to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII

The ratification of the conventions of nine States, shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in convention by the unanimous consent of the States present the seventeenth day of September in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty seven and of the Independence of the United States of America the twelfth. In witness whereof we have heremon subscribed our names.

Go. Washington—Presid't.

Attest William Jackson Secretary and deputy from Virginia

New Hampshire

JOHN LANGBON

Massachusetts

NATHANIEL GORHAM RUFUS KING

Connecticut

WM. SAML. JOHNSON ROGER SHERMAN

New York

ALEXANDER HAMILTON

New Jersey

Wil: Livingston David Brearly. Wm. Paterson Jona: Dayton

Pennsylvania

B FRANKLIN
THOMAS MIFFLIN
ROBT MORRIS
GEO, CLYMER
THOS, FITZSIMONS

JARED INGERSOLL JAMES WILSON. GOUV MORRIS

Delamare

GEO: READ GUNNING BEDFORD JUN. JOHN DICKINSON RICHARD BASSETT JACO: BROOM

Maryland

JAMES MCHENRY
DAN OF St. THOS. JENIFER
DANL CARROLL

Virginia

John Blair— James Madison jr.

North Carolina

WM, BLOUNT RIGHD, DOBBS SPAIGHT, HIL WILLIAMSON

South Carolina

J. RUTLEDGE
CHARLES COTESWORTH PINCKNEY
CHARLES PINCKNEY
PIERCE BUTLER.

Georgia

WILLIAM FEW

Amendments

ARTICLE T

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances.

ARTICLE II

A well regulated militia, being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear arms, shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE III

No soldier shall, in time of peace be quartered in any house, without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE IV

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ARTICLE V

No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a Grand Jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty,

or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI

In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

ARTICLE VII

In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury, shall be otherwise reexamined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

ARTICLE VIII

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE IX

The enumeration in the Constitution, of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

ARTICLE XI

The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of

another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign State.

ARTICLE XII

The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice President, and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice President, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate:-The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates and the votes shall then be counted :- The person having the greatest number of votes for President, shall be the President. if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President.-The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice President, shall be the Vice President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed, and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of twothirds of the whole number of Senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice President of the United States.

ARTICLE XIII

Section 1. Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

SECTION 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XIV

Section 1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

Section 2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice President of the United States, Representatives in Congress, the executive and judicial officers of a State, or the members of the legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion, or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens

shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

Section 3. No person shall be a Senator or Representative in Congress, or elector of President and Vice President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who, having previously taken an oath, as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may by a vote of two-thirds of each house, remove such disability.

Section 4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations and claims shall be held illegal and void.

SECTION 5. The Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

ARTICLE XV

Section 1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

SECTION 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XVI

The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes on incomes, from whatever source derived, without apportionment among the several States, and without regard to any census or enumeration.

ARTICLE XVII

SECTION 1. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each State, elected by the people thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote. The electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State levislatures.

SECTION 2. When vacancies happen in the representation of any State in the senate, the executive authority of such State shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies: Provided, That the legislature of any State may empower the executive thereof to make temporary appointments until the people fill the vacancies by election as the legislature may direct.

Section 3. This amendment shall not be so construed as to affect the election or term of any senator chosen before it becomes valid as part of the Constitution.

ARTICLE XVIII

SECTION 1. After one year from the ratification of this article the manufacture, sale, or transportation of intoxicating liquors within, the importation thereof into, or the exportation thereof from the United States and all territory subject to the jurisdiction thereof for beverage purposes is hereby prohibited.

Section 2. The Congress and the several States shall have concurrent power to enforce this article by appropri-

ate legislation.

Section 3. This article shall be inoperative unless it shall have been ratified as an amendment to the Constitution by the legislatures of the several States, as provided in the Constitution, within seven years from the date of the submission hereof to the States by the Congress.

ARTICLE XIX

SECTION 1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of sex.

Section 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XX

Section 1. The terms of the President and Vice President shall end at noon on the 20th day of January, and the terms of Senators and Representatives at noon on the 3d day of January, of the years in which such terms would have ended if this article had not been ratified; and the terms of their successors shall then begin.

Section 2. The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall begin at noon on the 3d day of January, unless they shall by law appoint a dif-

ferent day.

Section 3. If, at the time fixed for the beginning of the term of the President, the President elect shall have died, the Vice President elect shall become President. If a President shall not have been chosen before the time fixed for the beginning of his term, or if the President elect shall have failed to qualify, then the Vice President elect shall act as President until a President shall have qualified; and the Congress may by law provide for the case wherein neither a President elect nor a Vice President elect shall have qualified, declaring who shall then act as President, or the manner in which one who is to act shall be selected, and such person shall act accordingly until a President or Vice President shall have qualified.

Section 4. The Congress may by law provide for the case of the death of any of the persons from whom the House of Representatives may choose a President whenever the right of choice shall have devolved upon them, and for the case of the death of any of the persons from whom the Senate may choose a Vice President whenever the right of choice shall have devolved upon them.

Section 5. Sections 1 and 2 shall take effect on the 15th day of October following the ratification of this article.

Section 6. This article shall be inoperative unless it shall have been ratified as an amendment to the Constitu-

tion by the legislatures of three-fourths of the several States within seven years from the date of its submission.

ARTICLE XXI

SECTION 1. The eighteenth article of amendment to the Constitution of the United States is hereby repealed.

SECTION 2. The transportation or importation into any State, Territory, or possession of the United States for delivery or use therein of intoxicating liquors, in violation of the laws thereof, is hereby prohibited.

Section 3. This article shall be inoperative unless it shall have been ratified as an amendment to the Constitution by conventions in the several States, as provided in the Constitution, within seven years from the date of the submission hereof to the States by the Congress,

Glossary

| Word | Meaning | on page |
|--------------------|---|---------|
| | declare under oath against a thing | 15 |
| | put an end to | 120 |
| abridging | making smaller, decreasing | 108 |
| accurate | correct, true | 145 |
| accusation | charge of wrongdoing against a person. | 92 |
| accused | | 92 |
| acknowledgment | | 1.5 |
| | found not to be guilty | 178 |
| activities | things which persons or groups of persons do | 25 |
| adapted | changed to fit | 97 |
| | fully equal to any need | 145 |
| | arranged in a way which satisfies every- | 140 |
| uajusiou | body | 203 |
| administered | offered with official guidance | 253 |
| admiration | | 55 |
| admission | permission to enter into or join | 39 |
| admitted | permitted to enter or join | 11 |
| adopted | | 56 |
| advantages | things which are helpful | 38 |
| advocate | a person who urges some special course | |
| | of action | 64 |
| affect | act upon or influence | 165 |
| affix my signature | sign my name | 15 |
| agencies | groups of officials or other persons | |
| | selected to do some special job | 97 |
| agricultural | connected with farming | 49 |
| alderman | a law-making or rule-making officer | |
| | representing the people of a city | 135 |
| alien | a person who is not a citizen of a country. | 13 |
| allegiance | the duty of faithfulness which a person | |
| | owes to his country | 13 |
| alliance | agreement of groups to cooperate | 53 |
| allot | give a share of something to | 193 |
| alter | change | 120 |
| | the highest-ranking persons sent by one | |
| | nation to represent it officially in | |
| | dealing with other nations | 81 |

| Word | Meaning | As used on page |
|---------------------|---|--------------------|
| amendment | a change in, or an addition to, a con- | |
| | stitution or law | 12 |
| Americanization | plans and ways which help foreign-born | |
| | persons to become good American | |
| | citizens | - 6 |
| amplifying | enlarging, expanding | 331 |
| anarchists | persons who are against all organized | |
| | government | 13 |
| ancestors | parents, grandparents, and their parents | |
| | and grandparents all the way back | 33 |
| annexed | added or joined to something else | 99 |
| anti-social | against the good of the people | . 3 |
| appeals | requests that a higher authority will | |
| | change a decision or correct a mistake | |
| | of a lower authority | 182 |
| applicant | a person asking for something | 12 |
| application | the act of testing a general principle by | |
| | putting it into practice | 205 |
| appointed | chosen for a job, but not by vote | 30 |
| appointment | the choice of an office-holder not made | |
| | by vote | 91 |
| appropriations | acts authorizing the Treasury Depart- | |
| | ment to pay out money for special | |
| | uses | 243 |
| areas | definite spaces of territory | 99 |
| argued | gave reasons in favor of or against | 76 |
| arguments | reasons in favor of or against | 76 |
| arrange | put things in order | 36 |
| arrest | take or keep a person by authority of | 100 |
| | law | 122 |
| art galleries | buildings or rooms in which paintings, statues, and other works of art are | |
| | shown | 161 |
| article | a particular part of a writing consisting | |
| | of two or more parts | 74 |
| articles | particular things | 39 |
| articles | written or printed statements of facts or reasons | 76 |
| | written agreements for cooperation be- | |
| Articles of Confed- | tween the 13 independent State gov- | |
| eration | ernment groups after the Declaration | |
| | of Independence | 63 |
| assemble | meet together | 92 |

| Word | Menning | As used on page |
|------------------------------------|---|--------------------|
| assemblies | the meetings of a group; a word often | on page |
| assemblies | used in connection with lawmaking | |
| | groups | 52 |
| assenting "assessed valuation"_ | agreeing, or voting "yes"the money value set on property to de- | 75 |
| | termine how much it shall be taxed | 182 |
| assign | set apart | 23 |
| attached | devoted or loyal to | 14 |
| attachment | devotion, loyalty | 103 |
| attention | thought and study applied to some- | 134 |
| authority | power which must be obeyed | 21 |
| authorized | given power or the right to act | 121 |
| autocracies | | 114 |
| autocratic | | 114 |
| 3U00C1&UC | one person | 22 |
| | В | |
| bail | money or some other valuable object | |
| | given to any government agency to | |
| | make sure that a prisoner, if let loose, | |
| | will appear again for trial | 92 |
| ballot | an official paper given to a voter on | |
| | which he may mark his vote | 137 |
| bankruptcy | inability to pay one's debts | 127 |
| basic | at the foundation or base of | 21 |
| basis | foundation | 200 |
| beverages | things to drink | 93 |
| billboards | | 150 |
| Bill of Rights | | |
| | longing to the people of a nation | 83 |
| binding | serving to connect persons or things closely together | 54 |
| bond | a written agreement to perform some | |
| | duty honestly or, upon failure, to make | |
| | good by paying to the person dam- | |
| | aged by the failure a sum of money | |
| | set aside for the purpose | 182 |
| | edges or boundary lines | 32 |
| boulevard | a fine city avenue or broad street | 151 |



| 308 | THE CONSTITUTION WILL GOVERNMENT | |
|------------------------|---|--------------------|
| Word | Meaning | As used on page |
| | the act of giving or receiving something of value for the purpose of influencing | on jugo |
| | official action in an improper way | - 207 |
| British | people of England, Scotland, and | |
| budget | Wales | 50 |
| bulletins | spent during a certain period | 166 |
| | tion of the public | 278 |
| burdens | things heavy or hard to carry | 58 |
| bureaus | Executive Departments, and the peo- | |
| | ple who work in them | 94 |
| by its title | by the short descriptive statement printed at the beginning of each bill | 243 |
| | C | |
| | member of a council of executive officers a struggle between political parties | 250 |
| | before an election | 138 |
| | persons seeking office place for the headquarters for the gov- | 21 |
| Capitol | ernment the building in which the United States | 78 |
| celebrated | Congress meets at Washington, D. C. made an important or a happy occasion | 221 |
| ceremony | | 58 |
| certificate | | 253 |
| | telling some important fact | 15 |
| cession | | 99 |
| chairman charitable | | 23 |
| charters | Government which are the founda- tions on which certain kinds of organi- | 191 |
| checks and balane | zations are built up | 30 |
| | powerful | 83 |

| Word | Meaning | As used on page |
|--------------------------|--|--------------------|
| | districts to be traveled over | 180 |
| | passed around to people | . 76 |
| itizen | Nation | 2 |
| eitizenship | membership in a city, State, or Nation | 2 |
| eivic | interested in the good of a city or com- munity | 5 |
| ivil | concerning the private legal rights of a citizen and the protection of them | 127 |
| classify | | |
| elinic | | |
| | school, which gives free examination and treatment to sick or injured | |
| | persons | 20 |
| collectively | through representatives authorized to make bargains which will bind the whole group | 270 |
| colonies | newly settled communities or countries which belong to an older national | |
| | group | 4 |
| colonists commissions | persons living in a colony government groups, usually headed by several officers with equal powers | 9 |
| committee | group selected to do a special piece of work | 2 |
| common carriers | conveyances, such as railroads, autos, busses, or ships, that carry goods or people as a business | 27 |
| common defense | acts for protecting all the people of a country | 7 |
| community | | |
| community centers. | buildings, rooms, or open spaces where the people of the community can meet for community business or pleas- ure. | 16 |
| ompact | an official agreement | 71 |
| compel | force someone to do something unwill- | 99 |
| | | |

| Manina | As tes |
|---|---|
| that which is given in place of something | on pur |
| | 27 |
| other people's and one is required to | |
| | 27 |
| to be hard to understand | . 8 |
| group gives up something in order to | |
| make agreement possible | 6 |
| groups to try to get them to agree, | |
| even though each group has to give | 0.1 |
| | 31 |
| | 18 |
| | 6 |
| may use at the same time | |
| a finding that a person is guilty and must be punished | ç |
| not absolute, but granted on certain clearly understood terms | 28 |
| Articles of Confederation | 6 |
| ability to make good | 3 |
| makes something stronger by agreeing to it | 9 |
| | 20 |
| disorder | 2 |
| religious services | |
| the national group of lawmakers in the United States, elected by the people. | 1 |
| agreement | 9 |
| as a result of factors already mentioned. | 9 |
| | 27 |
| a law-enforcing officer of a town or town- ship | 13 |
| the group of persons who vote for and elect an official to represent them in a | 31 |
| bante omes | 91 |
| | else or to make good a loss in which one's work is compared with other people's and one is required to do as well or better than others with several parts so woven together as to be hard to understand make a bargain in which each person or group gives up something in order to make agreement possible. persons who meet with two disputing groups to try to get them to agree, even though each group has to give up something. final decisions agree officially powers which the Nation and any State may use at the same time a finding that a person is guilty and must be punished not absolute, but granted on certain clearly understood terms the group of 13 original States under the Articles of Confederation. trust, belief in someone's honesty or ability to make good makes something stronger by agreeing to it is contrary to, or in opposition to disorder groups of people who come together for religious services. the national group of lawmakers in the United States, elected by the people- agreement as a result of factors already mentioned protection from waste or damage a law-enforcing officer of a town or town- ship the group of persons who vote for and |

| | | Asused |
|----------------------|---|---------|
| Word | Meaning | on page |
| constitutional in | agreement with the principles of the | |
| 1 | Constitution | 33 |
| Constitution of the | t of general rules and principles of government on which the whole | |
| United States | National Government of the United | |
| United States | States is built up | 12 |
| constitutions se | ets of general rules which are the foun- | 12 |
| constitutions se | dation upon which organizations are | |
| | built | 30 |
| construction work as | ny kind of building | 277 |
| | ficers who represent a nation in busi- | 211 |
| constitue | ness matters in a foreign city | .81 |
| contacts pl | laces where things touch | 21 |
| | kely to spread easily from one person | . 21 |
| Contragious m | to another | 157 |
| contest st | ruggle | 75 |
| | group of delegates from all the Colonies | |
| Continental Con- | which met first in 1774 to make plans | |
| gress | to protect the rights of the colonists. | 54 |
| contradictd | eny the truth of another person's | |
| | statements | 148 |
| contrary to as | gainst | 99 |
| control pe | ower of directing or guiding persons | |
| | or things | 24 |
| | andy, well suited for ready use | 33 |
| | meeting of delegates | 63 |
| conversations in | formal exchange of thoughts through | |
| | spoken words | 146 |
| | ound guilty of a crime | 178 |
| | itisfied by argument | 76 |
| cooperates w | orks in a friendly way with other | |
| | people | 31 |
| cooperative h | aving all units working together to | 312 |
| | bring about one result gal rights protecting the work of | 012 |
| copyrights le | authors from being used by other | |
| | people | 127 |
| coroner of | ficer who inquires into deaths when | 121 |
| coroner 0 | there is reason to suppose that they | |
| | are not due to natural causes | 181 |
| corporations g | roups of people who join in business, | |
| corporations g | each group with legal permission to | |
| | act as one person | 44 |
| | | |

| | | de mer |
|----------------------|--|--------------------|
| Word | Meaning | As used on page |
| council | a group of persons who meet together for discussion | 165 |
| counterfeiting | making imitation money for the purpose | |
| Counterrendg | of passing it as good money | 241 |
| counties | parts into which a State is divided for | |
| | government purposes | 3 |
| created | made new | - 59 |
| Creator | God, the Supreme One | 59 |
| credit | arrangement by which a person can get | |
| | goods or money from another person who trusts him to pay for them later- | 122 |
| creditors | persons to whom sums of money are | 122 |
| | owed | 179 |
| criminal groups | persons who join to do bad actions which | |
| | are against the law | |
| crises | | |
| | made | 97 |
| Critical Period | | |
| | be made | 68 |
| criticize | find fault with a person or thing | 108 |
| critics | persons who express their judgment | |
| | about people or things (usually an unfavorable judgment) | 139 |
| crop rotation | | |
| | on a piece of land each year to prevent taking out of the soil certain values | |
| | and wearing out the land 27 | 1_272 |
| currency | | |
| | money | 248 |
| customers | regular or frequent buyers | 29 |
| customs | common uses | 1 |
| customs duties | | |
| | brought into a country | 295 |
| | D | |
| debate | regulated presentation of arguments in public | 244 |
| decisions | | |
| decisive | deciding, having final influence on the | 22 |
| | result | 55 |
| | the public statement by which the Con- | |
| Declaration of Inde- | tinental Congress declared the 13 | |
| pendence | North American Colonies to be free | |

| Word | Meaning | As used on page |
|----------------------------|---|-----------------|
| declaration of inten- | a "first paper," the sworn statement of | |
| tion | an alien that he intends to become a | |
| GIOIL | citizen | 14 |
| declare | state | 15 |
| deductions | amounts allowed to be subtracted | 294 |
| deeds | written papers, prepared according to law, transferring the ownership of real | |
| | estate to someone else | 179 |
| defend | protect from danger | 13 |
| defines | explains just what a thing is, or how it is done, or can be done | 91 |
| definite | clearly known | 11 |
| delegate | pass on to others | 23 |
| delegates | | |
| | authority to represent them, usually | |
| | for a meeting | 54 |
| deliberately | acting only after careful thought | 75 |
| $\operatorname{demand}_{}$ | ask or call for with authority | 55 |
| democracy | a government of the people, by the | - ' |
| | people, for the people governed by the power or authority of | 11 |
| democratic | the people | 22 |
| | Government executive groups formed | 22 |
| departments (also | for some particular purpose—as the | |
| bureaus, boards, | Navy Department, the Children's | |
| commissions) | Bureau, the Federal Reserve Board. | |
| | the Federal Trade Commission | 94 |
| dependent | relying upon others for support | 44 |
| dependents | | |
| | pay their living expenses | 295 |
| deprived | | 112 |
| deputies | | 64 |
| deriving | drawing, or receiving | 120 |
| descendants | all the children, grandchildren, great grandchildren, etc., of the same par- ents | 106 |
| destructive | having the power to destroy, ruin, or tear | 100 |
| uopui uouro | down | 120 |
| details | particular parts of anything | 94 |
| development | | 88 |
| develops | | 88 |
| devise | | 330 |
| | 그리고 그 아버리는 이 작가요. 이 가하다는데, 마음이 모양하다 수 | |

| Word | Meaning |
|------------------------|--|
| dictators | leaders who have autocratic authority for a short time |
| dictatorship | autocratic authority given to a chosen leader, usually for a limited time |
| diminished | reduced in amount, made less |
| direct | guide, or cause to move in a chosen di- rection |
| direct taxes | taxes which must be paid by the tax- payer direct |
| disagreement | failure to agree |
| discharge | complete, finish, carry out |
| discharged | freed |
| disclaims | denies any connection with or claim to_ |
| discuss | talk over |
| discussion | talking things over |
| disinfect | purify or make free from germs or con- tagion |
| disposing | getting rid of |
| disputes | quarrels |
| disqualifications | qualities which prevent a person from doing some task |
| dissenting | voting "No" |
| distinguish | make a thing stand out from other things |
| distrust | feel no trust or confidence in |
| distrustful | having no trust or confidence in what is going on |
| dividends | company as their share of its profits_ |
| document | a written or printed paper that often is used as a guide for action |
| domains | large stretches of land belonging to one owner, usually the Government |
| domestic | at home |
| domestic tranquillity. | |
| draft | wording, choice of words to express ideas already agreed on |
| drainage | system for carrying away waste water |
| drones | |
| duty | that which a person ought to do |
| | E |
| economic | related to the production, distribution, |

and use of wealth.

teaching and learning

education.

| Ward | Meaning | As used on past |
|---------------------------|--|--------------------|
| | bring to pass | 120 |
| effective | successfully producing the end desired | 90 |
| | the way to get the best results with the | 00 |
| | least cost of time, money, or effort | 206 |
| elected | chosen by the votes of members of a | |
| | group | 11 |
| electorate | the entire group of qualified voters | 123 |
| | persons chosen by the voters to meet | |
| | and select a President and a Vice | |
| | President for the United States | 78 |
| eligible | fit to be chosen | 206 |
| | sudden and unexpected dangers | 264 |
| employees | persons employed to do work | 165 |
| enacted | made into law | 202 |
| encourage | give someone the courage or desire to do | |
| encourage | something | 147 |
| endowed | given valuable gifts or rights | 59 |
| endure | last | 97 |
| enemies | | 13 |
| enforcing | | |
| | law or rule into effect | 39 |
| enlightened | well informed | 145 |
| equipment | supplies or materials needed to carry | |
| | on a particular service | 275 |
| erosion | the wearing away or washing away of | |
| | soil and rocks | 195 |
| established establishment | set up or createdsetting up, putting into effect | 49 75 |
| establishment estates | properties left by persons who died | 179 |
| evasion | a tricky way of hiding the truth | 15 |
| examination | | 10 |
| CAMILIMATION | asking questions | -14 |
| examiner | | - 1 |
| | another person by asking questions | 14 |
| | trade, barter | 105 |
| exchanges | a special name for the markets where | |
| | stocks and bonds are bought and sold. | 276 |
| | | |



| Word | Meaning | As use on pag |
|---|--|------------------|
| executive | an officer or group of officers whose duty | |
| | is to put something into effect, as a | |
| | law | 6 |
| executive | having authority and power to put | |
| | things into effect | 6 |
| | use or practice | 10 |
| exerted | used forcefully | 14 |
| | keep on living | 2 |
| | cost of thingsthat which has been learned by having | 4 |
| * . | tried a thing | 3 |
| experienced | having remembered and profited from trial and practice | 6 |
| experiment stations | places where new ways of doing things | |
| | are officially tested | 19 |
| experts | persons who are widely experienced or | |
| • | thoroughly informed about some par- | 4 8 |
| 21. 11. | ticular thing | 15 |
| explicit | explained very clearlysubstances, such as gunpowder or dyna- | 7 |
| expiosives | mite, which cause a violent bursting. | 15 |
| exports | articles shipped out of a country | 24 |
| | make clear by act or word | 13 |
| | F | |
| facilities | ways of doing things easily; good equip- | |
| 14044400 | ment and arrangement. | 27 |
| factors | things which work together to get | |
| *************************************** | results | 2 |
| favor | take sides with, try to help | 13 |
| | for instead of against | 7 |
| features | important and noticeable parts | 2 |
| Federal | based on an agreement between equal States | 7 |
| Federal system | the central government working in | |
| | agreement with State governments | 7 |
| feeble-minded | persons whose minds are weak | 16 |
| | ability to reproduce or grow things in | |
| | plenty | 27 |
| fertilizers | material which makes the soil more fer- | |
| | tile and feeds the plant life in it | 19 |
| fidelity | faithfulness, loyalty | 1 |

| Word | Meening | As used on page |
|--------------------|--|--------------------|
| filter | strain through something which will re- | |
| | move impurities | 157 |
| final | last | 15 |
| finance | | |
| | and spent | 168 |
| financed | furnished with money | 314 |
| | related to money matters | 263 |
| | punishment by requiring payment of | |
| | money | 92 |
| fleet | a number of ships under one command | 56 |
| forbidden | ordered by someone in authority not to | |
| | be done | 50 |
| foreign trade | | |
| | people of two countries | 31 |
| formal | | 88 |
| foster | encourage and support | 273 |
| founding | starting or setting up | 50 |
| franchise | | |
| | government to some definite person or | |
| | group | |
| fraud | trickery | 75 |
| | G | |
| | liquid measures each containing 4 quarts | 157 |
| garbage | worthless food matter | 25 |
| garbage-disposal | a place where household refuse is gotten | |
| plant | rid of | 162 |
| generous | free about giving things away | 103 |
| good moral charac- | qualities which result in good conduct- | |
| ter | usually honesty and respect for the | |
| per | rights of others | |
| good will | willingness to live or work together well | |
| government | the persons who have charge of the | |
| government | public business; and the organization | |
| | | |
| | which they manage | 1 |
| grand jury | | |
| | cide whether a person shall be brought | |
| | to trial | 92 |
| grants-m-aid | money paid by the Federal Government | |
| | to such State governments as are | |
| | willing to cooperate in relief and wel- | |
| | fore projects | 207 |

| Word | Meaning | As used on page |
|--------------------------|---|--------------------|
| guaranteed | made safe or certain | 83 |
| guilt | the fact of having broken a law | 206 |
| | н | |
| handicraft | skilled work with the hands | 278 |
| harbor | a body of water forming a safe place | |
| | where vessels may stay | |
| headquarters hearings | a principal place of businesspublic meetings which are held to dis- | |
| | cuss bills | 202 |
| hospital | a building in which sick persons are | |
| (| a group of elected representatives chosen | |
| House of Representa- | by the people to make laws, particu- | |
| tives | larly the "lower house" of our Na- | |
| , | tional Congressorganized groups of lawmakers | |
| houses | most modest or least known | |
| humblest | most modest or least known | . 330 |
| | I | |
| ideas | thoughts or opinions | |
| idiots | persons without sound minds from birth. | |
| ignorant | untaught, lacking in knowledge | |
| ignore | pay no attention to | |
| immigrant | a person who comes to a new country to make his home. | |
| immigration | the entering into a country for home- making purposes of people from other countries. | |
| immunities | privileges which let people be free of | |
| 22422 | certain obligations or requirements | |
| impartially | fairly, justly, without taking sides | . 288 |
| impeachments | accusations of wrong or error against government officials for their public | , |
| | acts | |
| impose | lay a burden or weight on | |
| imprisonment | condition of being locked up in prison increase in value or quality. | |
| improvement | that which increases a thing in value or | |
| mprovement. | quality | 23 |
| inaugural address | | |
| | dent when he has taken the oath of | |
| | office | 252 |

| Word | Mouning | As use on pag |
|---------------|---|------------------|
| inauguration | the act of taking the oath of office by the President | 98 |
| income tax | a payment to a government, the amount of which is determined by the tax- payer's earnings or profits | 93 |
| inconvenience | | 42 |
| incorporated | local government | 177 |
| incumbent | which are laid | 288 |
| independence | freedom from being ruled by someone else | 49 |
| independent | not needing the support, or subject to the control, of someone else | 49 |
| indictment | made by a grand jury | 92 |
| indifferent | | 135 |
| indivisible | not possible to be separated or divided | 302 |
| influence | power of a person to sway the opinions or actions of others | 64 |
| informal | done in easy ways that are proper but not according to set rules | 88 |
| inhabit | | 134 |
| inhabitants | people who live in a place | 58 |
| inheritance | any property which passes to a person by law upon the death of another person | 295 |
| initiate | make a beginning, set things going, introduce | 151 |
| initiative | legal right reserved by the voters of some States to start the lawmaking process themselves, without waiting for their representatives to act first. | 150 |
| | being not guilty | 113 |
| | mentally unbalanced; mad; crazy | 116 |
| inspected | looked at carefully | 44 |
| • | careful study or inquiry made by actu- ally looking at the thing examined | 44 |
| | set up, established, or organized | 120 |
| | anything built up solidly for a definite purpose | 134 |
| insurance | protection against loss | 44 |

| Word | Meaning | As use on pag |
|----------------------|--|------------------|
| | businesses which contract to pay money | J. J |
| IIIouzunoo -om-pii | in case certain events occur, as fires, | |
| | accidents, deaths, etc | 19 |
| interest | | 29 |
| interests | | |
| monocour | likes | |
| interfere | act in a way to hamper the actions or | |
| mooreco | freedom of another person | 55 |
| interpreted | explained in language which the listener | - |
| Interpreted | understands | 9 |
| interstate | | |
| HIEGISOMOO | one State to another | 27 |
| invasion | | 6 |
| invested | | |
| mvesten | wealth | 19 |
| investigating | making careful inquiry about | 18 |
| investigations | | 24 |
| | persons who use their money to buy | 24 |
| investors | stocks and bonds | 27 |
| involved | | 20 |
| irrigate | supply farm lands with enough water to make plants grow | 19 |
| issnance | act of giving something out officially | 15 |
| issues | | 14 |
| italic type | printed letters which slope to the right | |
| | 1 | |
| judgment | . choosing between right and wrong | |
| judicial | having to do with a court of justice | 12 |
| judiciary | a system of courts of justice | 6 |
| jurisdiction | the lawful power of a government over | |
| • | its people and their property | 1 |
| jury | a group of citizens who are chosen to listen to trials in a court and to decide which side is right. | 4 |
| instice | absolute fairness | 7 |
| | judges of local courts which are only | 17 |
| inmanile delinemente | authorized to decide simple cases children who do not obey the law | |
| lavenne demiddents. | continuen who do not oney the law | 16 |

.

| | - | |
|------------------------|--|------------------|
| Word | Meaning | As use on pag |
| | an executive officer having charge of matters concerning wage earners | 20 |
| landlord | an owner who rents his land or build- ings to someone else | 4: |
| law-abiding | | 10 |
| | total disregard and disrespect for the | 18 |
| lawsuits | | 9 |
| lectures | speeches on chosen subjects | 14 |
| legal | in agreement with law, or connected with law | 8 |
| | having power or authority to make laws | 6 |
| | members of lawmaking groups | 14 |
| legislatures | lawmaking bodies | 8 |
| liberty of conscience_ | right | 7 |
| libraries | buildings or rooms where books are kept to be read | 4 |
| licenses | authority to do certain acts or carry on certain businesses | 11 |
| litigation | the act of carrying on a suit in a law court | 28 |
| livestock | | 27 |
| local | | |
| local problems | neighborhood questions that need an- swering | 4 |
| | placedfaithful | 12 |
| | things bought for a person's pleasure | - |
| Tuxurios | and not needed for actual living | 29 |
| | M | |
| maintain | | 9 |
| major | larger | 13 |
| | carry on | |
| | skillful and well-planned movements | 26 |
| manufacture | the making of an object, usually by | 9 |
| mass meeting | meeting open to everybody who comes. | 12 |
| matariala | | 1.5 |

| Word | Meaning | As used on page |
|----------------------------|---|--------------------|
| mayor | head official of a city government | on page 137 |
| member | one who is part of, or has a share in, a | 107 |
| | group | 3 |
| membership | a position giving a chance or right to share in a group | 3 |
| mental reservation | some thought which you hide in your | |
| merchant | mind and do not tell anyone | 15 |
| | sell things | 42 |
| militia | an organization of soldiers who in peace- time have other jobs and drill and are | |
| | trained only on a part-time basis. | 42 |
| minors | persons less than 21 years old | 135 |
| model | something to be copied | 65 |
| monument | something large and fine, built or kept up to remind us of some person or | |
| | past event | 74 |
| morals | personal conduct as to right and wrong. | 196 |
| mortgages | legal papers providing for the future transfer of property in case some prom- | |
| | ise, usually to pay back money which | |
| | is borrowed, is not kept | 179 |
| municipal | having to do with a city | 207 |
| museums | places where collections of curiosities or | |
| | objects of interest or works of art are | 101 |
| | kept to be seen | 161 |
| | N | |
| nationalnational resources | big enough for the whole Nation natural wealth and human energy which | 1 |
| | can be made useful to the Nation | 270 |
| naturalization | the way in which foreign-born persons are given citizenship | 12 |
| naval bases | fortified starting points from which war | |
| | vessels may operate | 266 |
| navigable neighborhood | offering a passage for ships place where people live close together; | 264 |
| | everything near you is in your neigh- | |
| | borhood | 2 |
| nominating | naming a candidate for office | 95 |
| nomineesnoncitizens | persons who are named as candidates persons who are not citizens of the coun- | 137 |
| | try in which they live | 103 |
| | 0 | |
| obedience | doing what one is told to do | 35 |

| Word | Meaning | As used on page |
|---------------|--|--------------------|
| objective | purpose or aim | - 5 |
| obligation | something we owe or must do | 15 |
| obscure | not well known | 219 |
| occupations | ways of earning a living | 56 |
| officers | persons given authority by a group, to | |
| | hold definite jobs or "offices" | 43 |
| officials | officers | 43 |
| official | issued by the Government | 15 |
| oligarchy | a government in which a few people have | |
| | the final word | 22 |
| operate | do work | 21 |
| opinions | what a person thinks, without knowing | |
| -1 | it to be true | 64 |
| opportunity | chance to better oneself | 1 |
| oppression | cruel use of authority or power | 74 |
| ordain | give a formal order for | 283 |
| orderly | peaceable, free from sudden change by | |
| | violence | 25 |
| ordinances | city laws | 129 |
| organizations | groups working under clearly described | |
| | officers for particular purposes | - 3 |
| originate | take the first action on | 235 |
| orphans | children whose parents have died | 127 |
| overseers | persons in charge | 182 |
| ownership | authority over things which belong to | |
| | one | 115 |
| | | |
| | P | |
| pardon | excuse or forgive, relieve from further | |
| | punishment | 204 |
| paroles | releases of prisoners on their word of | |
| | honor to observe certain conditions. | 265 |
| | name for the British lawmaking group | 52 |
| passed | adopted and made binding on the | |
| | people | 129 |
| passports | official documents issued by govern- | |
| | ments to their citizens when they | |
| | wish to travel in foreign countries, | |
| | showing the right of the persons named | |
| | to travel safely under the protection of | |
| | the government | 262 |
| patriots | persons who love their country and try | |
| | to improve it | 113 |

| Word | Meaning | As used on page |
|-----------------------|---|--------------------|
| peaceably | in a peaceful way | 105 |
| peculiar | special, especially belonging to | 199 |
| penal institutions | buildings or other places in which per- | |
| • | sons are imprisoned as a punishment | |
| | for lawbreaking | 265 |
| performances | things done | 139 |
| permit | a written or printed card authorizing a | |
| | person to do something | 111 |
| perpetual lease | an arrangement by which an owner turns | |
| • | his property over to someone else | |
| | forever in return for a yearly payment | |
| | of money | 99 |
| persecuted | treated with repeated acts of cruelty | 50 |
| person of African de- | a person whose parents or grandparents, | |
| scent | etc., were of the African race | 13 |
| persuade | win over by argument | 55 |
| petition | a written application | 14 |
| petit jury | | |
| | hear and decide cases in court | 209 |
| petty | | 180 |
| physical | | 158 |
| Pilgrims | | - |
| | to find religious freedom | 50 |
| | robbery on the sea | 241 |
| "platform" | | *** |
| | political party | 138 |
| point of view | an argument seriously presented in a public discussion | 140 |
| 12 | authority given to a law-enforcing | 148 |
| ponce power | agency to do those things necessary | |
| | to protect the health, safety, peace, | |
| | and general welfare of a community. | 181 |
| policies | plans for present or future official action. | 110 |
| political parties | | 110 |
| pontition partitions | ways of running a government and | |
| | try to get their own members elected | |
| | to office | 21 |
| polling place | place where citizens vote on election | |
| 7 8 | day | 137 |
| polygamists | persons who have more than one wife | |
| | or husband at the same time | 13 |
| population | people living in some particular place or | |
| | Area | 75 |

| populous "posse" | Marning having many people a group of persons in a county whom the sheriff has called together to help arrest criminals or preserve the public peace | As used on page 200 |
|---------------------|--|---------------------|
| possession | anything which a person or nation owns and holds | 95 |
| posterity | our children and their children, and so on—our descendants | 80 |
| posters | printed statements or pictures intended to be fastened in public places | 150 |
| potentate | one having great power, as the ruler of a country | 15 |
| practice | do a thing many times | 108 |
| practices | things done many times | 95 |
| practices | an opening statement | 79 |
| | a small division of a city or county made | 19 |
| precinct | for governmental purposes | 142 |
| | keep safe or in good condition | 68 |
| preserve | the chosen chief officer of a group | 11 |
| president | anything printed and offered to the | 11 |
| press, the | public, such as newspapers, magazines, | |
| | or books | 76 |
| primary election | special election at which each political party nominates its candidates for office by its own votes | 137 |
| principles | | 197 |
| principles | be used as a foundation for other rules | |
| | or plans | 13 |
| privilege | | 10 |
| privilege | prize | 43 |
| probate | having to do with proving that a will was | 10 |
| probabolilian | properly made by a person who has | 208 |
| bl | questions to be answered | |
| problems | | 2 |
| procedure | properly | 208 |
| T-1000000 | | 17 |
| processproclaimed | | 17 |
| procramed | made a public statement about an im- | *** |
| | portant thing | 56 |
| production | the act of making or growing | 271 |

| Word | Meaning | As used on page |
|-----------------------|--|--------------------|
| profit | gain, sale of an article for more than you paid for it | 49 |
| programs | orderly arrangements of things hoped or planned to be done | 23 |
| prohibited | forbidden, not allowed | 82 |
| project | plan for work to be done | 102 |
| promote | raise from one school grade to another. | 23 |
| promote | bring or force forward | 79 |
| | rights which a person has in things which he owns | 35 |
| proposed | offered for action or argument | 88 |
| prosecuting attorney. | a government law officer who argues in court for the punishment of persons | |
| | who have broken the law | 180 |
| pro-social | for the good of the people | 3 |
| prosper | | 31 |
| protection | | 25 |
| pro tempore | acting for a limited time during the absence of the regular officer | 242 |
| protested | "kicked" against or objected to (usually against something which injured the | |
| | objector) | 67 |
| provides | makes ready for future use | 91 |
| public ministers | high officials sent by one nation to repre- sent it in dealing with another nation | |
| public utilities | —lower in rank than ambassadors services furnished for public use, such as gas, electricity, telephone service, or | 81 |
| | bus or streetcar service | 161 |
| published | printed and offered to the public | 76 |
| | pain, suffering, or loss because of crime. | 92 |
| pursuit | search for | 59 |
| | Q | |
| qualifications | tests of fitness | 11 |
| qualified voter | a voter who meets the requirements of the law | 136 |
| qualify | prove that a person or thing is fit for a | |
| querentina | given purpose keep persons or places separated because | 11 |
| | of the danger of spreading disease | 157 |
| quartered | given a place to live (usually said of | |
| | soldiers) | 111 |

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| | R | |
|------------------------|---|--------------------|
| Word | Meaning | As used on page |
| "railroaded" | an American expression meaning that the accused has been sent to jail with- | |
| | out a fair chance of telling his side | 113 |
| range lands | open unfenced areas on which cattle, sheep, or horses may graze | 270 |
| ratification | adoption, acceptance, favorable vote | 70 |
| ratified | accepted and made official | 74 |
| rebellion | organized resistance to authority | 242 |
| recall | take away the right to hold office | 151 |
| receiver | a business manager appointed by a law court to straighten out a business | |
| | which cannot pay its debts | 276 |
| reception | formal occasion on which a person or group officially greets or welcomes | |
| | other persons | 262 |
| reclamation | bringing something, such as land, back to use or to production | 271 |
| | accept with approval | 83 |
| recognize | accepted | 58 58 |
| recognized | act of asking for favorable consideration_ | 166 |
| | changes to correct conditions which put | 100 |
| redress of grievances. | persons in danger or make them un- | |
| referendum | happy or uncomfortable legal right reserved by the voters of | 108 |
| referendum | some States to have the last word on acts of the legislature and other pub- lic questions by voting directly on | |
| | them | 151 |
| regulate | make rules for, or do a thing according to rules | 25 |
| regulation | rule to limit or direct action (usually government action) | 44 |
| reject | refuse to accept. | 151 |
| relations | well-understood connections between | 0.4 |
| relationship | two or more persons or thingsa well-understood connection between | 94 |
| linia baling | two or more persons or things what we believe about God | 31 |
| religious beliefs | declare against, or disown | 15 |
| repealed | canceled, given up | 93 |
| repel | drive or force back | 241 |
| • | | |

| Word | Meaning | As used on page |
|-------------------------|---|--------------------|
| representation | choice of a few persons to act for a larger group | 66 |
| representatives | persons chosen to act for a group | 24 |
| reprieves | temporary delays in applying punish- | |
| 135- | menta country governed by leaders who are | 265 |
| republic | selected by the people themselves and are expected to do what the people | |
| republican form of [| wanta government by leaders who get their | 1 |
| government | authority straight from the people what other people think and say about a | 83 |
| - | person | 108 |
| research laboratories_ | properly equipped buildings or rooms in which careful study and experiments are made in order to discover new in- | |
| | formation | 267 |
| | saves especially for a purpose | 81 |
| | live | 12 |
| | used for homes | 160 |
| resolution | statement of an official group adopted | |
| | by voteabout; with relation to | 75 |
| | ready to answer for one's acts | 108 23 |
| | readiness to answer for one's acts; or a call to duty which must be answered. | 23 |
| may/anua | the income of the Government | 233 |
| | consider over again | 207 |
| | improve by changing | 71 |
| right of self-govern- J | right of a group of people to manage | |
| | their own affairs | 1 |
| rigid | stiff, unbending, unable to change in form | 331 |
| riot | uproar | 23 |
| road supervisors | officers who have charge of roads in a county or district | 177 |
| rule of the majority | the vote of more than half of those vot- | |
| | ing | 116 |
| | s | |
| | guard to protect safely | 314 |
| | based on knowledge and system | 193 |
| secure | make a thing safe | 71 |

| Word | Meaning | As used on page |
|---|--|--------------------|
| security | safety | 145 |
| seizure | quickly taking and holding by force | 92 |
| self-evident | so clear that nobody can misunderstand. | 59 |
| self-sacrifice | a giving up by a person of things he | |
| | needs, usually in order to help other | |
| | persons | 42 |
| Senate | a group of lawmakers-particularly the | |
| | "upper house" of our National Con- | |
| | gress | 66 |
| sentence | several words used together which ex- | |
| | press a complete thought | 79 |
| sentence | | 117 |
| sentenced | | ~~. |
| 204000000000000000000000000000000000000 | ment | 179 |
| serums | liquids used in curing diseases | 279 |
| service | a useful thing to be done or given | 25 |
| services | | |
| | worshiping God | 20 |
| session | meeting | 36 |
| sewage | | |
| | matters carried off by sewers | 115 |
| sewers | pipes or other drains for carrying off | 110 |
| 50110152333333 | water, sewage, or other waste | 158 |
| sheriff | | 42 |
| shortages | | |
| DIOL 108 COLL 2 TELE 2 TE | pected or needed | 271 |
| similar | somewhat alike | 29 |
| slums | | |
| Diamorra | old battered buildings | 277 |
| social security | | 211 |
| 2001111 20011113 1111111 | to protect people against the hardships | |
| | of unemployment, illness, blindness, | |
| | old age, etc | 114 |
| sources | places from which anything comes or is | |
| | gotten | 67 |
| sovereignty | a kingdom or very powerful state | 15 |
| Speaker | | |
| | of Representatives | 242 |
| specified | named or set apart particularly | 218 |
| | | 21 |
| statistics | a study of any subject by theuse of num- | |
| | bers | 273 |
| | | |

| Word | Meaning | As used on page |
|------------------|---|--------------------|
| stocks and bonds | documents which show that a person is a | |
| | part owner or a creditor of a corpora- | |
| | tion | 275 |
| | having a very dull mind | 152 |
| submitted | passed on to someone else for action or | |
| | assent | 83 |
| sued | forced to appear in a law court to answer | |
| | some one's claim of wrong or damage | 108 |
| sufficient | enough | 75 |
| superintendent | a person who watches and directs the | |
| | activities of others in an organization | 30 |
| | chief officer having authority over the | |
| of schools | schools in a district | 182 |
| | has the duty of overseeing | 168 |
| support | uphold | 13 |
| | put down by force | 241 |
| supreme | highest, most important, having most authority | 62 |
| surpluses | amounts which are greater than what is | |
| • | expected or needed | 271 |
| surrender | give up | 58 |
| suspected | believed to be guilty | 109 |
| suspend | interrupt, hinder the enforcing of | 242 |
| system | an orderly arrangement | 22 |
| | T | |
| take effect | operate | 89 |
| tariff | a list of different kinds of merchandise with the rate of tax to be paid for | |
| | importing or exporting them | 295 |
| taxable | property which should be taxed | 182 |
| taxes | money which people must pay to the | |
| | Government to help pay its expenses. | 32 |
| tax rate | amount of tax to be paid, as measured | |
| | by the value of the property taxed | 168 |
| | lasting only a short time | 77 |
| tenant | | |
| | use the property of another person, | |
| | usually in return for the payment of | 10- |
| tomitorios | rent. | 121 |
| territories | separate tracts of land belonging to a | 40 |
| tantifu | nationswear to the truth of a statement | 49 |
| | swear to the truth of a statement | 92 |
| | | |

| Word | Meaning | As used on page |
|----------------------|--|--------------------|
| timber lands | lands on which trees are growing thickly | 195 |
| title papers | papers showing ownership of land and | 190 |
| | buildings | 179 |
| toll | a fixed charge for some privilege, as of | |
| | traveling on a road or bridge | 194 |
| tortured | put under extreme pain | 117 |
| town | a group of houses, larger than a village, and the people who live in them; also | |
| | a form of government | 6 |
| township | parts into which a county may be di- | |
| | vided for government purposes | 1 |
| traitors | persons who go against their allegiance. | 56 |
| transactions | pieces of business completed | 296 |
| transportation | way of getting from one place to another | 29 |
| transportation lines | companies which operate vehicles or | |
| • | ships to carry persons or goods | 196 |
| treaty | | |
| | more nations | 58 |
| trial | hearing in a court of justice | 92 |
| trustees | | |
| | represent them in business matters | 178 |
| tuberculosis | | 192 |
| tyrants | heads of countries who rule by force and | |
| | cruelty | 113 |
| | U | |
| unalienable | that which cannot be taken away | 59 |
| unanimous | all agreeing | 209 |
| underpasses | passages underneath, as where a road is | |
| * | built under a railroad bridge | 179 |
| uniform | of the same form with others | 127 |
| Union | things joined to make a single whole, like the States in our Nation | 63 |
| units | single things, single parts of a group or | 00 |
| | organization | 7 |
| universities | places of higher education | 6 |
| | V | |
| valuation | act of deciding the value or worth | 182 |
| vary | are different from one another | 3 |
| verdict | decision of a jury | 209 |
| vested | placed under the authority of | 226 |
| veto | refuse to approve | 166 |
| vigorous | full of life | 64 |
| | | |

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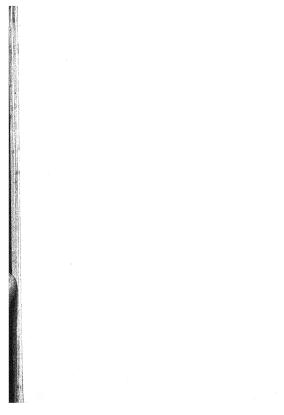


| Word | Mennine | As used on page |
|------------------------|---|--------------------|
| | groups of houses, smaller than towns | on page |
| vimages:::::::: | and the people who live in them | 1 |
| violate | break | 146 |
| violation | breaking of a rule or law | 93 |
| violence | rough treatment | 111 |
| viruses | poisons which cause contagious diseases and can be used in curing them | 279 |
| visas | official permits for aliens to enter a | |
| | country | 263 |
| | training for different kinds of jobs | 159 |
| void | | 206 |
| voluntary | | 42 |
| vote | express one's choice between men or plans by indicating "yes" or "no" | 43 |
| | w | |
| warrant | a legal order | 92 |
| waste material | | 157 |
| waterworks | | |
| | large quantities, usually to a town | |
| | or city | 157 |
| wealthy | | 71 |
| weapons | things to fight with, as guns | 54 |
| welfare | good living conditions | 43 |
| wholesale | the buying of large quantities of goods by merchants, to be sold to the people | |
| | in smaller quantities | 121 |
| wills | legal papers in which persons declare what they wish done with their prop- | |
| | erty after their death | 179 |
| withdraw | to get away, or to take away | 63 |
| witness | | 92 |
| | persons brought before a judge or gov- | |
| | ernment officer to tell what they have | |
| | seen or heard or know about some- | |
| | thing | 14 |
| | pay honor to God | 21 |
| writ of habeas corpus. | court order requiring that a person | |
| | named shall be brought into court so | |
| | that the judge may decide whether | |
| | he is being unlawfully deprived of his | 049 |
| | | |

| Our | Constitution. | and O | anernment |
|-----|---------------|-------|-----------|

| Our | Constitution and trovernment | 393 |
|--------|---|---------|
| | Y | As used |
| Word | Mouning | on page |
| yields | gives way to | 216 |
| | z | |
| zones | areas, divisions of a city in which the kinds and uses of buildings are strictly limited. | 160 |





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